Lordſhip, during the greateſt part of the time he was a judge, never ſat on the bench with the other judges, but always ſat within the bar, on the ſeat appropriated for Peers, and other diſtinguiſhed perſons.

The following Epitaph, by Dr Tytler, who had received ſome civilities from him on the ſcore of his Greek learning, appeared in the London papers ſoon after his death, and may not improperly conclude this imperfect account of ſo diſtinguiſhed a character.

EPITAPH on LORD MONBODDO.

BY DR TYTLER.

If wiſdom, learning, worth, demand a tear,
Weep o'er the duſt of great Monboddo here:
A Judge upright, to mercy ſtill inclin'd;
A generous friend, a father fond and kind;
His Country's pride for ſkill in Grecian lore,
And all antiquity's invaluable ſtore.
Yet, full of days, the ſage reſign'd his breath,
And, long prepar'd, ſunk eaſy down in death.
Now with thy Plato ſhalt thou reſt in peace;
And, tho' thy life on earth for ever ceaſe,
Yet, like the ſun, thy works the world ſhall light;
Still warm to virtue, ſtill like him be bright:
Thy fame, like him, e'en to the ſkies ſhall soar,
And ſhi ne like him, till time ſhall be no more;
While the mild blaze to little ſtars returns,
Who from thy dazzling beams illume their urns.
—Look down, bleſt ſhade! accept the votive lay,
Which one, not quite unknown, deſires to pay,
Laments, yet hails, thy flight to realms of day.

THOMAS SCOTT, THE REGICIDE.

Subſtance of the Confeſſion of that notorious Regicide Thomas Scott, made ſoon after the Reſtoration in 1660, who was a principal agent in the management of the Spies employed by Cromwell in different parts of Europe.

AFTER Midſummer 1649, I was appointed to the management of the Intelligence both Foreign and Domeſtic, for which I was very ill qualified, from my want of languages and experience in buſineſs of that nature. All my papers and intelligences are in the cuſtody of the perſons who had tranſacted the buſineſs of the State. My firſt employment was in diſcovering the Levellers in Ireland, which I effected by hiring ſome apprentices (at a weekly ſalary) to keep them company, who held conferences with the principals of them. Lilbourne Walwin, Prince, and Overton, were firſt committed; and afterwards, Maximilian Petty, Robert Colbert, and Dr Brookes. I held a regular correſpondence with Cromwell, who was then in Ireland for the ſupply of his army with all neceſſaries. I had moſt of my Iriſh intelligences from Dr Jones, ſome time Biſhop of Clogher, Scout-Maſter-General of that kingdom. By Mr Downing, who was Reſident at Edinburgh, I was informed of all that paſſed between the Scots and Charles the Second when at Jerſey, and at Breda. When the army marched into Scotland, in 1650, I had no more intelligence from Downing. After that, the ſeveral Commanders in Chief gave me accounts of what paſſed in Scotland. I had ſome things of a general nature out of the Highlands from Col. Bamfield. Lilly and Scilly were regained by the intelligence received from Major Carter and Major Furling. From France, N. N. gave intelligence to the Committee of both kingdoms, and afterwards to the Committee of Safety at Derby Houſe:

and when the king came thither, Father Creely, an Irish Abbot, known here by the name of Capt. Holland, informed me of many things relating to the King's affairs, and no inconsiderable intelligence from about the Queen his Mother's Court. But the most material discoveries were made by Col. Werden, who having relation to his Highness the Duke, had an opportunity of knowing much of his Majesty's affairs; and I believe he told all he knew. Many Members of the House of Commons gave me letters from France, which I compared with my regular intelligence: I had some things from Mr Waller a short time before his return from exile. I sent my domestic, Lewis de Bourgoigne, to France, to view and return me the strength of all the French Ports "*ufward.*" He began at Calais, and went through all the Wash to Bourdeaux. I had some correspondence with the Prince of Conde a few weeks before the interruption in 1653. I was just beginning a correspondence with Cardinal Retz, Mazarine's rival and antagonist, who pretended to favour the Common-Wealth of England: few letters, of small consequence, passed between us; the correspondence was discontinued after Bourgoigne's return from Bourdeaux. Col. Sasby (the old agitator) was sent to Bourdeaux by Cromwell and myself, with good sums of money; but what he effected, General Cromwell or his Ministers could only tell. Father Creely managed the affairs of Vienna and Madrid, whose King was strongly attached to Cromwell, and assisted him against the French and Portuguese. Most of the Duke of Lorrain's schemes against Ireland were communicated to me by Father Creely and Col. Riley, who was sent to Rome to solicit money, and to engage the Pope and other Catholic Princes to assist the Duke of Lorrain. For John Lilburne's designs in Holland against the Government of England, I had the assistance of one "Riley; but John's genius was too mighty for him," and he was obliged to quit Holland. After his departure, Capt. Oxford communicated many things relating to Lilbourne's printing in Holland: his works were smuggled into England.—Lilbourne boasted that he had corresponded with the Duke of B.; and observed to him, that with 10,000l. he could bring in the King. The affairs of Holland, and the war there, were conducted with great advantage by my gaining the minutes of every night's debate in their Cabinet Councils. This was effected by (Father Creely's) Capt. Holland's emissaries; and by Mr Bolton and Capt. Bishop, engaged by S. Bradshaw: one Cheshire (an Englishman) gave some general intelligence. The King's transactions (from Breda) with Lord Willoughby, Col. Greaves, Alderman Bunce, &c. were discovered (to me) by one Mr Harvey, who died: after his death, by Major Adams, who was constantly with the King's friends. But the most material intelligence was by intercepted letters, which were in cypher, and were decyphered by Dr Wallis of Oxford. These discoveries were fatal to some of the King's friends; but I interceded for Mr Lowe. I was generally employed in treaties with Foreign Powers, and in suppressing the swarms of pamphleteers, which sooner or later I got into my power; but I never caused one to be punished. I sent Isaac Birkenhead to Denmark, who gave some intelligence: and so did Mr Bradshaw, the Resident at Hamburgh. One Mr Benson was at Dantzick, and informed me of the disposition of the English merchants, and of Scottish people there and in Poland. My correspondents from Sweden, Poland, and Muscovy, sent little but common news, with which I filled the gazettes. "I did, upon my examination, acquaint

quaint Mr Secretary, Sir William Morrice, and Sir Anthony Ashley Cooper, of the offer made me when the King was in France by one Mr or Dr Jonson, of having the King brought into my power, which, whether it were practical or no, or how it could have been attempted, I could not tell; because, abhorring the thing as unsuitable to Christianity, I peremptorily renounced it: but that such a proposition was really made to me, and not now coined to purchase a favour (if I should want credit), will be evidenced by Mr John Davis, who married Mrs Barclay, whom I acquainted with the offer he made, many years since, in some occasional discourse with him, when I had little apprehension of his Majesty's probable accession to the Government." My employment after May 1659 (when the Army were pleased to restore that Parliament) was so ambulatory and transitory, that I effected nothing material. The business of intelligence was, by the Council of State, committed to five persons, viz. Sir H. Vane, Lieutenant-Gen. Fleetwood, Col. Sydenham, Major Salway, and myself. What they did I know not, except that they were under the directions of Mr Secretary Thurloe.—They examined some persons taken upon suspicion of Sir Geo. Booth's design. I sent Peter Talbot to the interview of the frontiers, to observe the transactions of the two Crowns with respect to the Common-Wealth. I endeavoured to bring about a peace with Spain, which was nearly concluded the night before the secluded Members came into the House and Council. I was alarmed on all sides with the designs of Sr Geo. Booth: I had some intelligence from Col. Bamfield; some from one called Lady Willoughby, a Catholic, by the means of Col. Sydenham; she spoke very particularly with respect to the intended day of rising, and mentioned a meeting that the King's party had near Gray's-inn; and that Sir Richard Willis was one. Sir Samuel Moreland brought three of Mr Thurloe's instruments into my correspondence by feigned names. I had, by Col. Bamfield's means, begun a correspondence at Paris with one Monsieur Marienburgh. Col. Werden and Major Hentshaw were my correspondents at Bruxelles; but they did very little service, and I sometime suspected that the latter was not sincere to us. "I do freely and faithfully give an account of all I know considerable in any kind.—The posture of my writing this, under an overseer, without conveniency to correct, digest, or transcribe, will I hope be pardoned, and purchase me an excuse for failings, &c."

THOS. SCOTT*.

* This man was originally a brewer's clerk, then an attorney; he was afterwards chosen a Member of the Long Parliament for the Borough of Wickham, in Buckinghamshire; and was so outrageous a King-killer, that he wished for no other epitaph or inscription on his grave, than *Here lies Thomas Scott, one of the King's Judges!* But it pleased God, that falling into the hands of Justice, he had no grave to write the epitaph on. He signed the warrant for the King's murder; but being brought to trial after the Restoration of King Charles the Second, on which he seemed rather to justify his conduct than to disclaim it, he received sentence as a traitor; pursuant to which, he was executed at Charing-cross, with three other malefactors, on Wednesday Oct. 17, 1660; and his head and quarters were set up in several places.

RE-

REMARKS TOWARDS A DISCOVERY OF THE AUTHOR OF JUNIUS'S LETTERS.

Continued from p. 664.

IN our laſt we gave the correſpondence which has been publiſhed in London, regarding the author of Junius' Letters. Some intereſting and ſtriking circumſtances, have lately appeared in ſome Edinburgh publications, which regard this intereſting topic, and which we think worthy of notice. Theſe point out a gentleman, who, though high in literary fame, never has heretofore been reputed, ſo far as we recollect, the writer of theſe celebrated Letters. With what degree of probability, our readers will judge from the following circumſtances.——In the year 1768, (ſays this writer) Dr Stuart went to London, expecting the patronage of Lord Mansfield, on account of his Eſſay on the Britiſh Conſtitution. His hopes, however, were defeated. Diſappointment, probably, as well as revenge, cauſed him to embrace the intereſt of the Oppoſition. He procured an introduction to an Engliſh gentleman ſtrongly connected by ties of blood to Lord Camden. This man is yet living, now in Parliament, and the boſom friend of Mr Pitt; his name I ſhall call Lucius. Lucius ſoon diſcovered the merits of young Stuart. The ſcheme of Junius's Letters was immediately planned by Lucius, and a Mr Fitzgerald, an accompliſhed Iriſhman, ſince dead. They were to give the information, and Stuart was to be the author; but a confidential amanuenſis was ſtill wanting. Mr Fitzgerald at laſt found one in his countryman Hugh Boyd.

A room was taken in a coffee-houſe in the Strand, where Lucius, Fitzgerald, and Stuart nightly met. Stuart wrote the letters in his own lodgings; Fitzgerald ſent them to Hugh Boyd to be tranſcribed, the latter returned them to Fitzgerald, who ſent them back to Stuart, and he conveyed them by ſtreet porters to Woodfall's.

An intimate acquaintance of Fitzgerald, from whom I had this ſtory, and in whoſe veracity I may perfectly confide, happened to frequent the ſame coffee-houſe. The miſtreſs of the houſe one day took my friend aſide, and cautiouſly adviſed him to break off all acquaintance with Fitzgerald; "for," added ſhe, "I ſtrongly ſuſpect he frequents the high road. About ſix weeks ago he took a room from me, for the purpoſe, he ſaid, of ſpending the evening agreeably with a few friends. But he never comes till twelve at night, and he brings with him two perſons whoſe appearance I ſadly diſlike. I liſten often at the door; their converſation in general is about Noblemen; but one night I heard them ſay they robbed a *linen draper*. I mean to tell them to-morrow to leave the houſe." My friend's curioſity was naturally excited: He bored a ſmall hole in an unobſervable part of the door, and told the landlady he would come early the next morning between one and two, which he accordingly did; and ſaw his intimate acquaintance Fitzgerald, Lucius, (whom he knew by ſight), and another perſon ſitting between them; but what was his aſtoniſhment when he found their converſation reſpected the writing of Junius's Letters.

He called upon Fitzgerald the next morning, and found him in bed, who apologized, by ſaying he had been late in the city with ſome acquaintances. Yes, ſaid my friend, Sir William Draper always entertains his company well at night; he is a jolly fellow "there are a number of racks and vipers that dance through his converſation in all the mazes of metaphorical confuſion." Fitzgerald immediately knowing he was diſcovered, after being informed how his acquaintance came to the knowledge of the ſecret, took his pro-

mile

miſe never to reveal it until after his (Fitzgerald's) death.

To the public this may appear a romantic ſtory, but they may depend on the authenticity of it, which is ſupported by many other facts.

It is well known that one of the parcels of Junius was marked with the ſeal of Edmund Burke; and upon Burke being challenged as to the fact, he declared that it was either a forgery, or that his friend Fitzgerald was the author of Junius; for he recollected breakfaſting with Fitzgerald the morning the parcel was delivered, and that Fitzgerald aſked his ſeal to put upon a letter, by apologizing he could not find his own.

It is alſo well known that the Letters of Junius were traced firſt to Lincolns-inn-fields, and next to Chancery-lane, in which two places Gilbert Stuart at different times reſided.

AN OLD MAGISTRATE.

ANECDOTES AND GLEANINGS.

Frederic.

AMBITION, from the hour of his acceſſion to the preſent moment, has been his only real paſſion. Neither the faith of treaties, nor the laws of nations, nor the principles of juſtice and equity, have ever ſufficiently reſtrained him from purſuing the aggrandizement of the Pruſſian monarchy. The conqueſt of Sileſia, under all the circumſtances, can ſcarcely be juſtified: the partition of Poland, however its injuſtice may ſeem to be diminiſhed by the concurrence of Auſtria and Ruſſia, was an act that revolted every mind not inſenſible to the diſtinctions of right and wrong. His own glory, more than the infelicity of his people, has conſtituted, at every period of his reign, the rule of his political conduct. Though not cruel, he is nevertheleſs in ſome reſpects oppreſſive: though he rarely permits capital puniſhments, he exacts pecuniary contributions from his ſubjects, ſcarcely leſs ſubverſive of their domeſtic happineſs, than would be the utmoſt ſeverity of penal laws. His vigilance, it is true, never ſleeps: and he is felt on the diſtant frontier of Courland, or of Cleves, at the extremities of his dominions, almoſt as much as here, at Berlin. But ſo was Philip the Second, the moſt odious tyrant of modern times. It is for the preſervation of his own greatneſs alone that Frederic wakes. Even his pleaſures are gloomy, philoſophic, and ſolitary. Love never invaded the privacy of 'Sans Souci,' nor ſoftened the auſtere and cheerleſs hours of Frederic's private life. He is great, but not amiable; we render homage to his talents, his reputation, and his victories; but we deſire to live under a more benign and unambitious prince.

Elector of Saxony's Mother.

IN ſpite of many natural diſadvantages, an air of ſenſe and intelligence illuminates her countenance. Few princeſſes poſſeſs more knowledge of the world, more gracious manners, or greater powers of pleaſing in converſation. Miſtreſs of various languages, acquainted with the human heart, and ingratiating in her addreſs, ſhe conduces not a little to render the Saxon court agreeable to ſtrangers. Her ambition is not inferior to her talents; but ſhe has at preſent no field on which to exert them, as her ſon the elector no longer conſults her on matters of a public nature, nor allows her to interfere in political affairs. Fruſtrated of the crown of Poland by her huſband's death, at the moment when ſhe ſeemed about to be raiſed to the throne, and now removed from the active ſcenes of ſtate, ſhe happily finds reſources in her love of letters.

The Elector Palatine.

HE died a few months ago. Endowed with judgment, and poſſeſſed of no mean abilities, he is nevertheleſs unambitious, and more attached to his pleaſures, than deſirous of aggrandi-

grandizing his houſe, or extending his dominions. In attention and application to public buſineſs he is not deficient. His leiſure is principally divided between the gratifications of appetite, and the purſuits of literature, to both of which he alternately ſacrifices. He no longer rides or hunts, having renounced, for theſe ten or twelve years paſt, the diverſion of the chaſe, on account of a dizzineſs to which he is ſubject; but in the conviviality of the table he indulges freely.

Few princes, now living, none perhaps, except the king of Pruſſia, have cultivated their minds more aſſiduouſly, or with greater ſucceſs. His reading is extenſive; and to the information derived from books, he adds the advantages of travel, as well as a perfect knowledge of mankind. He has viſited Italy, and reads the works of the poets and hiſtorians of that country, ancient and modern, in their original languages. In Engliſh I am aſſured he is not leſs converſant. Though a catholic, he is by no means a bigot; and if we try him by the ordinary ſtandard of princes, he certainly occupies a place much above mediocrity.

General Munich.

ONE of the greateſt eulogiums that was ever paſſed upon Fenelon was that of this General, who had known him in Flanders when he ſerved in the army of the allies: "I look upon that time as the happieſt of my life, in which I had the good luck to know the Archbiſhop of Cambrai; and I am leſs flattered with my ſucceſſes in my military profeſſion, than in thoſe marks of kindneſs which he was ſo good as to deign to witneſs to me in my youth."

Mines of Shemnitz.

THOUGH gold, ſilver, copper, and lead are all found in the mines of Schemnitz, the laſt forms the predominant metal. Their original diſcovery is almoſt loſt in the barbariſm and obſcurity of the middle ages; but it is indiſputable, that they have been worked for eleven hundred years. At this time they find employment for twenty-ſix thouſand men, women, and children, in the different departments or proceſſes. An admirable police is maintained; no criminal or malefactor being ever ſent there, and no female permitted even to enter the mines. Unlike thoſe of Sweden, Carniola, and many others in various parts of Europe, which are a ſort of ſubterraneous colonies, the workmen never ſleep below. After ſix, eight, or twelve hours of labour, they remount, and are relieved by others. The Turks, who were ſo long ſovereigns and maſters of the far greater part of Hungary, never took poſſeſſion of Schemnitz, though they penetrated to a village only two miles diſtant. Content with exacting an annual tribute of ſome thouſand florins, they indolently abandoned the mines to the Auſtrian princes.

Nothing can be ſo precarious, fluctuating, and incapable of calculation, as the annual profits derived from them to the crown; becauſe, at moments when the veins of ore are moſt abundant, they ſuddenly diſappear and frequently deceive or diſappoint the gueſs of the moſt experienced miners. About twenty-three years ago, juſt before the great war of 1756, they yielded ſo little, that it became a queſtion, when all the expences attending them were defrayed, whether the Empreſs Queen was a gainer or a loſer. But, preciſely at that time, when ſhe ſtood in moſt need of pecuniary aid, the workmen diſcovered veins ſo rich and productive, that during ſome years the gains were prodigious, amounting annually to ſeveral millions of florins. They have ſince been gradually diminiſhing, though by no means to ſo reduced a degree as in 1756.

Wraxall's Memoirs.

MR PARKE'S TRAVELS.

Concluded from p. 670.

IN addition to our extracts from Mr Parke's travels we ſhall give our readers his account of the hardſhips he encountered after having made his eſcape from the Moors.

"IT is impoſſible to deſcribe," ſays he, "the joy that aroſe in my mind when I looked around, and concluded I was out of danger; I felt like one recovered from ſickneſs; I breathed freer; I found unuſual lightneſs in my limbs; even the deſart looked pleaſant; and I dreaded nothing ſo much as falling in with ſome wandering parties of Moors, who might convey me back to the land of thieves and murderers, from which I had juſt eſcaped.

"I ſoon became ſenſible, however, that my ſituation was very deplorable; for I had no means of procuring food, nor proſpect of finding water. About ten o'clock, perceiving a herd of goats feeding cloſe to the road, I took a circuitous route to avoid being ſeen, and continued travelling through the wilderneſs, directing my courſe, by compaſs, nearly Eaſt South Eaſt, in order to reach, as ſoon as poſſible ſome town or village of the kingdom of Bambarra.

"A little after noon, when the burning heat of the ſun was reflected with double violence from the hot ſand, and the diſtant ridges of the hills, ſeen through the aſcending vapour, ſeemed to wave and fluctuate like the unſettled ſea, I became faint with thirſt, and climbed a tree in hopes of ſeeing diſtant ſmoke, or ſome other appearance of a human habitation; but in vain—nothing appeared all around but a thick underwood and hillocks of white ſand.

"About four o'clock I came ſuddenly upon a large herd of goats, and pulling my horſe into a buſh, I watched to obſerve if the keepers were Moors or Negroes. In a little time I perceived two Mooriſh boys, and with ſome difficulty perſuaded them to approach me. They informed me that the herd belonged to Ali, and that they were going to Deena, where the water was more plentiful, and where they intended to ſtay until the rain had filled the pools in the deſart. They ſhewed me their empty waterſkins, and told me that they had ſeen no water in the woods. This account afforded me but little conſolation; however, it was in vain to repine, and I puſhed on as faſt as poſſible, in hopes of reaching ſome watering-place in the courſe of the night. My thirſt was become by this time inſufferable; my mouth was parched and inflamed; a ſudden dimneſs would frequently come over my eyes, with other ſymptoms of fainting; and my horſe being very much fatigued, I began ſeriouſly to apprehend that I ſhould periſh of thirſt. To relieve the burning pain in my mouth and throat, I chewed the leaves of different ſhrubs, but found them all bitter, and of no ſervice to me.

"A little before ſun ſet, having reached the top of a gentle riſing, I climbed a high tree, from the topmoſt branches of which I caſt a melancholy look over the barren wilderneſs, but without diſcovering the moſt diſtant trace of a human dwelling. The ſame diſmal uniformity of ſhrubs and ſand every where preſented itſelf, and the horizon was as level and uninterrupted as that of the ſea.

"Deſcending from the tree, I found my horſe devouring the ſtubble and bruſhwood with great avidity: and, as I was now too faint to attempt walking, and my horſe too much fatigued to carry me, I thought it but an act of humanity, and perhaps the laſt I ſhould ever have it in my power to perform, to take off his bridle, and let him ſhift for himſelf; in doing which I was ſuddenly aſſected with ſickneſs and giddineſs,

and, falling upon the ſand, felt as if the hour of death was faſt approaching. Here then, thought I after a ſhort but ineffectual ſtruggle, terminate all my hopes of being uſeful in my day and generation; here muſt the ſhort ſpan of my life come to an end. I caſt (as I believed) a laſt look on the ſurrounding ſcene; and, whilſt I reflected on the awful change that was about to take place, this world with its enjoyments ſeemed to vaniſh from my recollection. Nature, however, at length reſumed her functions; and, on recovering my ſenſes, I found myſelf ſtretched upon the ſand, with the bridle ſtill in my hand, and the ſun juſt ſinking behind the trees. I now ſummoned all my reſolution, and determined to make another effort to prolong my exiſtence. And as the evening was ſomewhat cool, I reſolved to travel as far as my limbs would carry me, in hopes of reaching (my only reſource) a watering place. With this view, I put the bridle on my horſe, and, driving him before me, went ſlowly along for about an hour, when I perceived ſome lightning from the North Eaſt, a moſt delightful ſight, for it promiſed rain. The darkneſs and lightning increaſed very rapidly, and in leſs than an hour I heard the wind roaring among the buſhes. I had already opened my mouth, to receive the refreſhing drops which I expected, but I was inſtantly covered with a cloud of ſand, driven with ſuch force by the wind as to give a very diſagreeable ſenſation to my face and arms; and I was obliged to mount my horſe, and ſtop under a buſh to prevent being ſuffocated. The ſand continued to fly in amazing quantities for near an hour, after which I again ſet forward, and travelled with difficulty until ten o'clock.

"About this time I was agreeably ſurpriſed by ſome very vivid flaſhes of lightning, followed by a few heavy drops of rain. In a little time the ſand ceaſed to fly, and I alighted, and ſpread out all my clean clothes to collect the rain, which at length I ſaw would certainly fall. For more than an hour it rained plentifully, and I quenched my thirſt by wringing and ſucking my clothes."

From this place he proceeded through many difficulties to a Fouiah village belonging to Ali, called Shrilla, and rode to the Dooly's houſe, where he was refuſed admittance. He met with a better reception from an old woman, who gave him ſome victuals, for which he rewarded her with one of his handkerchiefs. Finding himſelf in a precarious ſituation in this place, he haſtened his departure, and on July 5th arrived at a Negro town, called Wawra.

Here, being in ſafety from the Moors, he reſolved to reſt himſelf; but was prevented by the importunity of ſome women, and the next day, by order of the Dooly, he departed. He then went to Waſſiboo, where he was joined by ſome fugitive Kaartans, who accompanied him in his route through Bambarra. At Sego he was refuſed admittance to the King, and told that he muſt not preſume to croſs the river without permiſſion. He was therefore adviſed to lodge at a diſtant village. This was very diſcouraging: "however," ſays he, "as there was no remedy, I ſet off for the village, where I found, to my great mortification, that no perſon would admit me into his houſe. I was regarded with aſtoniſhment and fear, and was obliged to ſit all day without victuals, in the ſhade of a tree; and the night threatened to be very uncomfortable, for the wind roſe, and there was great appearance of a heavy rain; and the wild beaſts are ſo very numerous in the neighbourhood, that I ſhould have been under the neceſſity of climbing up the tree, and reſting amongſt the branches. About ſun ſet, however, as I was preparing to paſs the night in this manner, and had turned my horſe

looſe,

loose, that he might graze at liberty, a woman, returning from the labours of the field, stopped to observe me, and, perceiving I was weary and dejected, inquired into my situation, which I briefly explained to her; whereupon, with looks of great compassion, she took up my saddle and bridle, and told me to follow her. Having conducted me into her hut, she lighted up a lamp, spread a mat on the floor, and told me I might remain there for the night. Finding that I was very hungry, she said she would procure me something to eat: she accordingly went out, and returned in a short time with a very fine fish; which, having caused to be half broiled upon some embers, she gave me for supper. The rites of hospitality being thus performed towards a stranger in distress, my worthy benefactress (pointing to the mat, and telling me I might sleep there without apprehension) called to the female part of her family, who had stood gazing on me all the while in fixed astonishment, to resume their task of spinning cotton; in which they continued to employ themselves great part of the night. They lightened their labour by songs, one of which was composed extempore, for I was myself the subject of it. It was sung by one of the young women, the rest joining in a sort of chorus. The air was sweet and plaintive, and the words, literally translated, were these *: "The poor white man, faint and weary, came and sat under our tree: he has no mother to bring him milk; no wife to grind his corn.—*Chorus.* Let us pity the white man; no mother has he," &c.—Trifling as this recital may appear to the reader, to a person in my situation, the circumstance was affecting in the highest degree: I was oppressed by such unexpected kindness, and sleep fled from my eyes. In the morning I presented my compassionate landlady with two of the four brass buttons which remained on my waistcoat; the only recompence I could make her."

An unfavourable opinion being entertained of him at this place, and being refused admittance to the King, who, however, with the order to depart, sent him five thousand kowries (small shells which pass current as money, at the rate of about two hundred and fifty for one shilling), he left Sego, and proceeded to Kabba. The conduct of the King of Sego he ascribes to motives by no means to be condemned.

From Kabba he went to Sansanding, where his reception was but indifferent, and from thence pursued his journey to the Eastward, experiencing on the road many hardships. At length he had a smart paroxysm of a fever. His account of himself at this period is truly deplorable: "Worn down by sickness, exhausted with hunger and fatigue, half naked, and without any article of value by which I might procure provisions, clothes, or lodging, I began to reflect seriously on my situation. I was now convinced, by painful experience, that

* This song has been versified by her Grace the Duchess of Devonshire:

The loud wind roar'd, the rain fell fast,
The white man yielded to the blast;
He sat him down beneath our tree,
For weary, sad, and faint was he.
And ah! no wife, or mother's care,
For him the corn or milk prepare.
Chorus.
The white man shall our pity share;
Alas! no wife, or mother's care,
For him the milk or corn prepare.

The storm is o'er; the tempest past;
And Mercy's voice has hush'd the blast:
The wind is heard in whispers low;
The white man far away must go;—
But ever in his heart must bear
Remembrance of the Negro's care!
Chorus.
Go, white man! go;—but with thee bear
The Negro's wish, the Negro's prayer,
Remembrance of the Negro's care.

the obſtacles to my further progreſs were inſurmountable. The tropical rains were already ſet in, with all their violence; the rice-grounds and ſwamps were every where overflowed; and, in a few days more, travelling of every kind, unleſs by water, would be completely obſtructed. The kowries, which remained of the King of Bambarra's preſent, were not ſufficient to enable me to hire a canoe for any great diſtance; and I had but little hopes of ſubſiſting by charity in a country where the Moors have ſuch influence. But above all, I perceived that I was advancing more and more within the power of thoſe mercileſs fanatics; and, from my reception both at Sego and Sanſanding, I was apprehenſive that in attempting to reach even Jenne (unleſs under the protection of ſome man of conſequence amongſt them, which I had no means of obtaining), I ſhould ſacrifice my life to no purpoſe; for my diſcoveries would periſh with me. The proſpect either was gloomy: in returning to the Gambia, a journey on foot of many hundred miles preſented itſelf to my contemplation, through regions and countries unknown. Nevertheleſs, this ſeemed to be the only alternative; for I ſaw inevitable deſtruction in attempting to proceed to the Eaſtward. With this conviction on my mind, I hope my readers will acknowledge that I did right in going no farther. I had made every effort to execute my miſſion in its fulleſt extent which prudence could juſtify. Had there been the moſt diſtant proſpect of a ſucceſsful termination, neither the unavoidable hardſhips of the journey, nor the dangers of a ſecond captivity, ſhould have forced me to deſiſt. This, however, neceſſity forced me to do; and, whatever may be the opinion of my general readers on this point, it affords me inexpreſſible ſatisfaction that my honourable employers have been pleaſed, ſince my return, to expreſs their full approbation of my conduct."

In purſuance of this reſolution, on the 30th of July he proceeded to Moorzan, and from thence to Modiboo, where he recovered his horſe, which he had left to chance, having no means of protecting him. On the 1ſt of Auguſt he left Modiboo, and continued his journey, in which he found great impediments in conſequence of the rains, and the overflowings of the rivers. Being informed that the King of Bambarra had ſent perſons to apprehend him, he avoided Sego, and proſecuted his route along the banks of the Niger. On his arrival at Taffara he experienced every mark of callous indifference in the inhabitants; for though he informed them that he ſhould only remain with them one night, and aſſured them that Manſong had given him ſome kowries to pay for his lodging, yet no perſon invited him to come in, and he was forced to ſit alone under the Bentang tree, expoſed to the rain and wind of a tornado, which laſted with great violence until midnight. From this ſituation he was releaſed by the kindneſs of a ſtranger, who invited him to take part of his ſupper, not being at liberty to aſk him into the hut. After this he was obliged to ſleep on ſome wet graſs at the corner of the court.

From this inhoſpitable ſpot Mr Parke proceeded to Sooha, and was there preſent at a Negro funeral. He then continued his route until he arrived at Koolikoro. At this time his principal ſubſiſtence aroſe from writing Saphies. After many difficulties he came to Bamakoo, after loſing his way thither. At Kooma he met with great kindneſs, but left that place on the 25th of Auguſt, and in the road was met by ſome banditti, by whom he was robbed, ſtripped, and plundered: his horſe was taken from him, and nothing was left him but a ſhirt a pair of trowſers, and his hat, in

which

which he had kept his memorandums. "After they were gone," says he, "I sat for some time looking around me with amazement and terror. Which ever way I turned, nothing appeared but danger and difficulty. I saw myself in the midst of a vast wilderness, in the depth of the rainy season; naked and alone; surrounded by savage animals, and men still more savage. I was five hundred miles from the nearest European settlement. All these circumstances crowded at once on my recollection; and I confess that my spirits began to fail me. I considered my fate as certain; and that I had no alternative but to lie down and perish. The influence of religion, however, aided and supported me. I reflected that no human prudence or foresight could possibly have averted my present sufferings. I was indeed a stranger in a strange land, yet I was still under the protecting eye of that Providence, who has condescended to call himself the stranger's friend. At this moment, painful as my reflections were, the extraordinary beauty of a small moss, in fructification, irresistibly caught my eye. I mention this, to shew from what trifling circumstances the mind will sometimes derive consolation; for though the whole plant was not larger than the top of one of my fingers, I could not contemplate the delicate conformation of its roots, leaves, and capsula, without admiration. Can that Being (thought I) who planted, watered, and brought to perfection, in this obscure part of the world, a thing which appears of so small importance, look with unconcern upon the situation and sufferings of creature formed after his own image?—Surely not!—Reflections like these would not allow me to despair. I started up, and, disregarding both hunger and fatigue, travelled forwards, assured that relief was at hand; and I was not disappointed. In a short time I came to a small village; at the entrance of which I overtook the two shepherds who had come with me from Kooma. They were much surprised to see me; for they said they never doubted that the Foulahs, when they had robbed, had murdered me. Departing from this village, we travelled over several rocky ridges, and at sun-set arrived at Sibidooloo; the frontier town of the kingdom of Manding."

At Sibidooloo he found the Chief disposed to redress the injuries he had received, and measures were taken to recover his horse and effects; but there being a scarcity, approaching to a famine, all over the country he was unwilling to trespass any longer on the generosity of his benevolent friend: he therefore removed to Wonda, where he was seized by a fever. He here recovered his horse and clothes; and finding it impracticable to proceed further with the animal, he presented him to his landlord, and sent his saddle and bridle as a present to the Mansa of Sibidooloo, as a return for his kindness to him.

He then prosecuted his journey to Kamalia, where he was received with kindness by a Bushreen, named Karfa Taura, who was collecting a coffle of slaves, with a view to sell them to the Europeans on the Gambia. By this man he was supplied with whatever he wanted, and by him he was persuaded to wait until the next dry season, and then go to the Gambia. The terms proposed were agreed to, and Mr Park, during his stay, set himself to acquire a more accurate knowledge of the natives, and of the country. This enquiry, as far as a violent fever would permit, he continued until the time of his departure. The result of his enquiries is very curious and circumstantial.

On the 19th of April he departed with Karfa from Kamalia, and continued his journey until the 2d of June when he arrived at Jindey, where, eighteen months before, he had parted from his friend Dr Laidley; "an

interval

interval during which he had not beheld the face of a Chriſtian, nor once heard the delightful ſound of his native language."

Being now within a ſhort diſtance of Piſania, from whence his journey originally commenced, and learning that his friend Karfa was not likely to meet with an immediate opportunity of ſelling his ſlaves, he perſuaded him to leave them there, and accompany him the remainder of his journey. They accordingly ſet forwards the 9th of June, and reached Tendacunda in the evening. On the 10th, Mr Robert Ainſley came to meet him, and invited him to ſtay at Piſania until Dr Laidley's return. The novelty of every object had a ſingular effect on Karfa. Mr Ainſley's ſchooner then lying at anchor in a particular manner: "This was the moſt ſurpriſing object which Karfa had yet ſeen. He could not eaſily comprehend the uſe of the maſts, ſails, and rigging; nor did he conceive it was poſſible, by any ſort of contrivance, to make ſo large a body move forwards by the common force of the wind. The manner of faſtening together the different planks which compoſed the veſſel, and filling up the ſeams ſo as to exclude the water, was perfectly new to him; and I found that the ſchooner, with her cable and anchor, kept Karfa in deep meditation the greater part of the day." Obſerving the improved ſtate of our manufactures, and our manifeſt ſuperiority in the arts of civilized life, he would ſometimes appear penſive, and exclaim, with an involuntary ſigh, *ja-to ſing inta ſeng*—black men know nothing.

From this benevolent Negro he parted on the 14th with great tenderneſs; having firſt rewarded him to his full ſatisfaction. On the 15th an American ſhip arrived, and he agreed for his paſſage, and embarked at Kaye on the 17th. The paſſage down the river was tedious and fatiguing, and at Goree he was detained until the beginning of October. A leak in the veſſel compelled them to direct their courſe for Antigua, which iſland they made in about thirty five days after their departure from Goree. At this iſland he remained ten days, when the Cheſterfield packet, homeward bound from the Leeward Iſlands, touching at St John's for the Antigua mail, he took his paſſage in that veſſel. He ſailed the 24th of November, and after a ſhort but tempeſtuous voyage, arrived at Falmouth the 22d of December; from whence he immediately ſet out for London, having been abſent from England two years and ſeven months.

An excellent judge, Major Rennel, ſays, "The late journey of Mr Park into the interior of Weſtern Africa has brought to our knowledge more important facts of its geography (both moral and phyſical) than have been collected by any former traveller. By pointing out to us the poſitions of the ſources of the great rivers Senegal, Gambia, and Niger, we are inſtructed where to look for the elevated parts of the country; and even for the moſt elevated point in the weſtern quarter of Africa, by the place from whence the Niger and Gambia turn in oppoſite directions to the Eaſt and Weſt. We are taught moreover the common boundary of the deſert and fruitful parts of the country, and of the Moors and Negroes which latter is the more intereſting, as it may be termed a boundary in *moral* geography; from the oppoſite qualities of mind, as well as of body, of the Moors and Negroes: for that phyſical geography gives riſe to habits which often determine national character, muſt be allowed by every perſon who is a diligent obſerver of mankind."

OF

OF AFRICAN EDUCATION.

From Parke's Travels.

EXCLUSIVE of the Koran, and a book or two of commentaries thereon, the ſchoolmaſter poſſeſſed a variety of manuſcripts, which had partly been purchaſed from the trading Moors, and partly borrowed from Buſhreens in the neighbourhood, and copied with great care. Other manuſcripts had been produced to me at different places in the courſe of my journey; and on recounting thoſe I had before ſeen, and thoſe which were now ſhewn to me, and interrogating the ſchoolmaſter on the ſubject, I diſcovered that the negroes are in poſſeſſion (among others) of an Arabic verſion of the Pentateuch of Moſes, which they call *Taureta la Moofa*. This is ſo highly eſteemed that it is often ſold for the value of one prime ſlave. They have likewiſe a verſion of the Pſalms of David (*Zabora Dawidi*) and laſtly, the book of Iſaiah, which they call *Lingeeli la Iſa*, and it is in very high eſteem. I ſuſpect, indeed, that in all theſe copies, there are interpolations of ſome of the peculiar tenets of Mahomet, for I could diſtinguiſh in many paſſages the name of the prophet. It is poſſible, however, that this circumſtance might otherwiſe have been accounted for, if my knowledge of the Arabic had been more extenſive. By means of thoſe books, many of the converted negroes have acquired an acquaintance with ſome of the remarkable events recorded in the Old Teſtament. The account of our firſt parents; the death of Abel; the deluge: the lives of Abraham, Iſaac, and Jacob; the ſtory of Joſeph and his brethren; the hiſtory of Moſes, David, Solomon, &c. All theſe have been related to me in the Mandingo language, with tolerable exactneſs, by different people; and my ſurpriſe was not greater on hearing theſe accounts from the lips of the negroes, than theirs, on finding that I was already acquainted with them; for although the negroes in general have a very great idea of the wealth and power of the Europeans, I am afraid that the Mahomedan converts among them, think but very lightly of our ſuperior attainments in religious knowledge. The white traders in the maritime diſtricts, take no pains to counteract this unhappy prejudice; always performing their own devotions in ſecret, and ſeldom condeſcending to converſe with the negroes in a friendly and inſtructive manner. To me, therefore, it was not ſo much the object of wonder, as matter of regret, to obſerve, that while the ſuperſtition of Mahomet has, in this manner, ſcattered a few faint beams of learning among theſe poor people, the precious light of Chriſtianity is altogether excluded. I could not but lament, that although the coaſt of Africa has now been known and frequented by the Europeans for more than two hundred years, yet the negroes ſtill remain entire ſtrangers to the doctrines of our holy religion. We are anxious to draw from obſcurity the opinions and records of antiquity, the beauties of Arabian and Aſiatic literature, &c. but while our libraries are thus ſtored with the learning of various countries, we diſtribute, with a parſimonious hand, the bleſſings of religious truth, to the benighted nations of the earth. The natives of Aſia derive but little advantage in this reſpect from an intercourſe with us; and even the poor Africans, whom we affect to conſider as barbarians, look upon us, I fear, as little better than a race of formidable, but ignorant heathens. When I produced Richardſon's Arabic grammar to ſome Slatees on the Gambia, they were aſtoniſhed to think that any European ſhould underſtand, and write, the ſacred language of their religion. At firſt, they ſuſpected that it might have been written by ſome of the ſlaves carried

carried from the coaſt; but, on a cloſer examination, they were ſatisfied that no Buſhreen (muſſulman) could write ſuch beautiful Arabic; and one of them offered to give me an aſs, and ſixteen bars of goods, if I would part with the book. Perhaps, a ſhort and eaſy introduction to Chriſtianity, ſuch as is found in ſome of the catechiſms for children, elegantly printed in Arabic, and diſtributed on different parts of the coaſt, might have a wonderful effect. The expence would be but trifling; curioſity would induce many to read it; and the evident ſuperiority which it would poſſeſs over their preſent manuſcripts, both in point of elegance and cheapneſs, might at laſt obtain it a place among the ſchool-books of Africa.

The reflections which I have thus ventured to ſubmit to my readers on this important ſubject, naturally ſuggeſted themſelves to my mind, on perceiving the encouragement which was thus given to learning (ſuch as it is) in many parts of Africa. I have obſerved, that the pupils at Kamalia were moſt of them the children of Pagans; their parents, therefore, could have no predilection for the doctrines of Mahomet. Their aim was their children's improvement; and if a more enlightened ſyſtem had preſented itſelf, it would probably have been preferred.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE MANNERS AND CUSTOMS OF G. BRITAIN.

Concluded from page 677.

Duke of Argyll's, at Inverary.

THE manner in which we ſpent our time at Inverary caſtle was extremely agreeable. Each perſon roſe at any hour he pleaſed in the morning. Some took a ride, others went to the chaſe. I roſe with the ſun, and proceeded to examine the natural hiſtory of the environs.

At ten o'clock, a bell ſummoned us to breakfaſt: we then repaired to a large room, ornamented with hiſtorical pictures of the Argyle family; among which there were ſome by Battoni, Reynolds, and other eminent Italian and Engliſh painters. Here we found ſeveral breakfaſt tables, covered with tea, coffee, excellent cream, and every thing the appetite could deſire, ſurrounded with bouquets of flowers, newſpapers, and books. There were beſides in this room, a billiard-table, a piano-forte, and other muſical inſtruments.

After breakfaſt, ſome walked in the parks, others amuſed themſelves with reading and muſic, or returned to their apartments. At half paſt four, the dinner-bell was rung, and we went to the dining-room, where we always found a table of twenty-five or thirty covers. When all the company were ſeated, the chaplain, according to cuſtom, made a ſhort prayer, and bleſt the food, which was ate with pleaſure. Indeed, the dinners were prepared by an excellent French cook, and every thing was ſerved up in the Paris manner, except a few diſhes in the Engliſh form, which made a variety, and thus gave the epicures of every country an opportunity of pleaſing their palates.

I was particularly pleaſed to ſee napkins on the table, and forks of the ſame kind as thoſe uſed in France. I am not much diſpoſed to riſk pricking my mouth or my tongue with thoſe little ſharp tridents, which are generally uſed even in the beſt houſes in England. I know that this kind of forks are only intended for ſeizing and fixing the pieces of meat while they are cut, and that the Engliſh knives being rounded at the point, may anſwer for ſome of the purpoſes to which the French forks are applied, particularly in carrying meat to the mouth; but, I muſt confeſs, that I uſe their knives very awkwardly in this

this way. It is well, however, to accuſtom one's ſelf to the uſages of different countries; and it ſeemed to me that at table, as well as in ſeveral other inſtances, the Engliſh calculate more accurately than we do.

In England, the fork is always held in the left hand, and the knife in the right. The fork holds the meat down, the knife cuts it, and the pieces may be carried to the mouth with either. The motion is quick and preciſe. The manœuvres at an Engliſh dinner are founded upon the ſame principle as the Pruſſian diſcipline. *Not a moment is loſt!*

In France the firſt manœuvre is ſimilar to that of the Engliſh: but when the meat is cut in pieces, the knife is laid down on the right ſide of the plate, and the fork is changed from the left to the right hand, with which it is lifted to the mouth: thus our table tactics are more complex than the Engliſh, and require more time. The Engliſh method is certainly the beſt; but large knives, with rounded points, are neceſſary to put it in practice. And why not have them? There would then be an arm leſs in the hands of the vitious or the tooliſh.

How many frantic or hopeleſs beings have made uſe of ſharp-pointed knives againſt themſelves? How many monſters have cruelly uſed them againſt others? The melancholy liſt would, doubtleſs, be long: and, perhaps, if this uſeful inſtrument had, not in Italy, Spain, and moſt other countries, the form of a ſtiletto, ſuch crimes would be leſs frequently committed. Experience has long ſince proved that great effects may ſpring from very trivial cauſes.

But howſoever this may be, I muſt not forget that the knives and forks at the Duke of Argyle's table ſerved to help us to very good things. The different courſes, and the after-meats, were all done as in France, and with the ſame variety and abundance. If the poultry was not ſo juicy as that of Paris, we were amply compenſated by the moſt delicate moor fowl, by delicious fiſh, and by vegetables, the quality of which did honour to the ſkill of the Scottiſh gardeners.

At the deſert, the ſcene changed: cloth, napkins, and every thing diſappeared. The mahogany table ſhone in all the luſtre that wood is capable of receiving from art: but it was ſoon covered with brilliant decanters, filled with the moſt exquiſite wines; comfits, in fine porcelain, or cryſtal vaſes; and fruits of different kinds in beautiful baſkets. Plates and glaſſes were diſtributed; and in every object elegance and conveniency ſeemed to rival each other. I was ſurpriſed, however, to ſee on the ſame table, in ſo cold a climate, and in the month of September, peaches, apricots, raiſins, prunes, figs, &c. all of an excellent quality, except the figs, which could not be called fine, by a perſon born in the ſouth of France. It is probable, however, that the greater part of theſe fruits were produced by much care and expence in hot-houſes.

Toward the end of the deſert, the ladies withdrew to a room deſtined for the tea-table: I was ſorry they left us ſo long alone; but the Duke of Argyle informed me, that he preſerved this old cuſtom in his family, in order that the people of the country might not be offended by the breach of a practice, to which they had always been accuſtomed. The ceremony of toaſts was well kept up in the abſence of the ladies; but though they uſually continued to go round for at leaſt three quarters of an hour, no perſon's inclination was violated, and every one drank what he pleaſed. This, however, did not prevent a great number of healths being drank with ſpirit, and every demonſtration of pleaſure. Wines are the greateſt luxury of the Britiſh table. They drink the beſt and the

deareſt that grow in France and Portugal. If the lively champaign ſhould make its diuretic influence be felt, the caſe is foreſeen, and in the angles of the room, the neceſſary convenience is to be found.

At laſt they proceeded to the drawing-room, where tea and coffee abound, and where the ladies did the honour of the table, with much dignity and grace: the tea is always excellent, but it is not ſo with the coffee: ſince it was not good in a houſe like this, where no expence is ſpared, it cannot be expected to be good any where elſe in the country. I ſhould imagine that the Engliſh and Scotch attach no importance to the fine perfume and flavour of good coffee; for it ſeems to be all one to them what kind they drink, provided they have four or five cupfuls. Their coffee is always weak, bitter, and completely deprived of its aromatic odour. Thus they want an excellent beverage, which would be a thouſand times more favourable to their health than tea. Kæmpfer, who reſided long in Japan, and who has publiſhed ſome very curious obſervations upon tea, and the ſhrub that bears it, remarks that it is of a narcotic nature.

After tea, thoſe who chooſed it retired to their apartments: thoſe who preferred converſation and muſic remained in the room; others went out to walk. At ten o'clock, ſupper was ready, and thoſe attended it who pleaſed.

In England, I always found that all claſſes of people eat a great deal more than the French. I do not know that they are more healthy; indeed, I doubt they are not; but this I know, that Dumoulin, one of the moſt celebrated phyſicians of Paris, once told me, that he was never raiſed in the night to viſit any perſon who had not ſupped.

THE MANNERS OF THE GREAT NOT ESSENTIAL TO THE MANNERS OF THE NATION.

THE attention of the public has of late been very much directed to the manners of the Great. Volumes have been written upon the ſubject, and it would appear that, in the opinion of ſome, the welfare of the nation depended on the *goodneſs* of thoſe whom we term *great*. Undoubtedly this ſubject derived its firſt importance from the attempts in a neighbouring country to level all ranks, and to perſuade other nations that ſuperiority of ſituation is a crime, and that nobility are generally worthleſs. It was, therefore, neceſſary to look a little at home, and conſider whether the diſſolute manners of the great in this country did not tend, as in other nations, to create that contempt which might be the forerunner of their fall. This enquiry was of great importance, and the diſcuſſion has been managed with diſcretion and good temper. Beneficial conſequences have reſulted, and may ſtill reſult, from this ſeaſonable alarm. The giddy have become thoughtful, and the diſſipated more regular. Public diſplay of vice has been publicly diſcouraged, and a reſpect for external decency, at leaſt, and an abhorrence of public licentiouſneſs, is very generally profeſſed, and it is to be hoped, often very ſincerely.

Perſons of rank, who are uſually termed *the great*, cannot but find themſelves in a very awkward ſituation at all times. Placed on an eminence, they are expoſed to a multitude of watchful and ſcrutinizing eyes. There is nothing they perform that is not known, and the notorious ſubject of converſation. Their amuſements are examined with an attention, which themſelves do not think they deſerve. Their foibles are magnified through a hundred cenſorious glaſſes, and their crimes

crimes are considered as the utmost stretch of human depravity.

In this general censure of the manners of the great, it is not difficult to perceive somewhat of justice, and somewhat of envy. Justice, and a true sense of morality, must ever condemn what is vicious in the great, not because they commit it, but because it is in itself deserving of censure, and because, when they commit it, others are apt to follow with eagerness what they see practised with impunity. It undoubtedly happens, that the *great* have it in their power to commit offences without dreading many of the usual consequences, with which they would be attended in the case of the *little*. With men in the middling ranks of life, many vices are attended with an expence which renders them almost impossible, or very dangerous, and with the lower orders, positive ruin is the certain consequence. I grant that it is no excuse, or a very poor one, for a man to say that he practices certain vices because his fortune will allow of it; but at the same time when a person in lower life feels an inclination to copy such an example, there could be no impropriety if he first consulted the state of his finances. But, as has been already observed, justice condemns what is vicious without considering either the rank or wealth of the party, and does not, except as far as example must be taken into the question, see any difference between the vices of a lord, or of a shopkeeper.

Beside a sense of justice, there is some envy to be found mixed with our censure of the manners of the great, and this is evident both in those who, highly respect *rank*, and in those who, according to the perversities of new political opinions, despise it. With persons of both descriptions, every foible is magnified into a crime, and every crime into a prodigious enormity, when committed by a person of high rank. There is not much consistency or wisdom in this. Those who highly respect rank should not carry that respect so far as to imagine that rank gives an exemption from human frailty, and those who despise rank have not yet proved that title and fortune are the necessary cause of the evils they affect to deplore. And both parties would do well to consider that the character of a nation or people never depends upon the manners of the great; without any disrespect for them, we may safely affirm that all we possess of character with foreign nations, for integrity, honour, punctuality, generosity, bravery, and public spirit, arises from the manners of the middling and lower classes, and not from those of the great, who are few in number, and do not engage in those pursuits, the performance and success of which give character to a nation.

Still, however, the situation of the great is so eminent, that it is impossible for us to take our eyes off, and continually viewing men of high distinction, we are apt to imagine there must be something highly distinguished even in their follies; that a debt contracted by a lord has something more faulty than one contracted by a tradesman; that an amour between two right honourables is something more licentious than one between a plain master and miss, and that a shopkeeper cannot possibly arrive at the wickedness of being "as drunk as a lord." But if the great complain of this partiality, which they have some reason to do, they ought to derive comfort from another circumstance which nearly balances the account, and that is, our being apt to magnify their virtues just as much as their follies, and exalt every little instance of affability, punctuality, or kindness, into a virtue beyond what may be expected from human nature. A smile, a nod, the return of a bow, or a shake by the hand, are gracious marks of favour on which we are apt

to ſet a higher value than, perhaps, they are intrinſically worth.

And this mode of balancing accounts ſerves to ſhow how confuſed our ideas are both of nobility and morality, ſince we forget that there is a ſtandard for meaſuring the latter, which applies equally to the whole human race, and will certainly be applied on *that day* when human diſtinctions will be no longer ſerviceable, and when the queſtion will not be, what a man was, but how he acted. It will likewiſe, undoubtedly be then a queſtion, whether he improved his opportunities, what were the ſtrength of his temptations, and what the uſe of his means. But let it be remembered that this queſtion will not be aſked of the great only, for there is no man, be his ſituation what it may, who has not a moſt weighty reſponſibility, and which he cannot ſhake off by cenſuring the manners of others, but by accounting for his own.

Much as the *pride* of the great is cenſured, I queſtion whether it ought not to be extended, rather than diminiſhed, and where it inſpires a man with a contempt for lowneſs of ſituation, it would be a moſt profitable thing, if it went as far as a contempt for lowneſs of manners. We talk much of the bad example of the great *deſcending* and ſpreading among the vulgar. I queſtion much whether this be the natural order of things. In the pride of birth, I ſee nothing but what would lead to dignified conduct and to honourable actions. In the pride of wealth and title, I ſee nothing but what would naturally lead to the high power and diſtinction of diffuſing bleſſings around the owner. But in low vices, it is eaſy to ſee there muſt be a low origin, and that the *blind alley* muſt by ſome means have inſinuated its vulgar vices into the *ſplendid ſquare*. Violations of decorum muſt naturally originate with thoſe who, from defects of education, have not learned what decorum is, and who have no protection from any ſpecies of low ſenſuality by pride of any kind. If *pride*, therefore, is in eſteem, let it be extended to the manners of thoſe whoſe perſons it conſiders in an inferior light. Let every licentious pleaſure be conſidered as a diſgrace, as an impeachment of the honour of the party, and as ſullying rank and title. And this is a ſpecies of pride which, beſide its advantage in never running to an exceſs, may be indulged by perſons of all ſituations, and I will venture to add, it will not influence a man's conduct long, without raiſing him to a higher diſtinction, and a place in the public eſteem, which no man ever deſpiſed with impunity.

Inſtead, however, of fixing our eyes with too conſtant a gaze on thoſe who are very much above us, and cenſuring their manners with a cenſorious aſperity, let us now and then look at our own, and conſider their influence in the circle in which we are intended to move. The man who finds fault with others, has gone but half the way, and the eaſieſt half toward mending himſelf. More depends on the manners of the middling and lower ranks of life, in promoting the happineſs of the nation, than upon thoſe of the great, becauſe the former conſtitute the majority, and are ever in action, and in that kind of action upon which national proſperity depends. It is not for them to imitate what is far out of their power, what they affect to cenſure with bitterneſs, and what they cannot imitate without being ridiculous. The duties of private life are leſs obſerved, but they are not leſs dignified in reality, nor of leſs value to him who performs them well. And it affords no ſmall conſolation to a lover of his country, that its ſenſe and ſpirit are decidedly againſt public licentiouſneſs among the great vulgar as well as the little vulgar; that however frequently examples

amples of it are exhibited, they meet with the juſt cenſures they deſerve, and that, unlike ſome other nations, which have been debauched by ſyſtems and by precept, although we have many who deliberately practice, we have none who deliberately defend immoral actions. U.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF LIFE AND HAPPINESS IN THE EAST AND IN EUROPE.

Concluded from p. 674.

Domestic manners furniſh a more minute, but not unimportant contraſt. In receiving ſtrangers at his houſe, and when they leave it, the Oriental teſtifies no great emotion. The viſitor is welcomed rather by actions than words. An Arab or Turk having once accorded protection, which he does with a kind of diſtance and hauteur, never afterward withdraws it, and his word may be relied on. In viſiting as is well known, the common, but abſurd practice which obtain among ourſelves, of urging thoſe to ſtay longer, of whoſe company one is already tired, is obviated by the ſimple uſe of a little ſcented wood in a cenſer.

In their communications every thing tends rather to tranquillize the mind, than to excite the paſſions. The quarrels of the mere mob, indeed, evaporate in idle vociferation; but among perſons of any breeding, the voice is ſcarcely ever raiſed above its ordinary tone.

The greateſt number of menials in a family (and in the eaſt they are very numerous) occaſions no confuſion. All is conducted in ſilence and order. All ſuch directions as are in the common routine of affairs, are given by ſigns, and are inſtantly underſtood; not from pride, or as implying the vaſt diſtance between maſter and ſervant, but principally to avoid all *equivoque*, when perſons of various deſcriptions are preſent, and, by making ſecrecy an uniform habit, to avoid all ſuſpicion from the adoption of myſtery in giving orders before company, when any thing is to be ſaid which it is not intended that company ſhould hear.

The ingenuity of man in contriving his own happineſs, is in no part of the world more conſpicuous than in Europe. Our mutual intercourſe is ſo beſet with forms, that it becomes doubtful whether it be a good or an evil; and the individual, not unfrequently, leaves a company diſſatisfied that he ever entered into it. Hence a continued deſire of changing place and forming new acquaintance.

Whenever a number of perſons meet together, eating and drinking ſeem to be a neceſſary bond of union; and they often do not ſeparate without that kind of feſtivity, which impairs the health of each, and creates diſſentions, as it were, by its mechanical operations. The ſole benefit which reſults from the ſocial meals of the Arabs, is to us entirely unknown.—No man thinks himſelf incapacitated from injuring his neighbour, in conſequence of having divided with him a loaf of bread, and a little ſalt, at the convivial board. In the eaſt ſocial intercourſe is leſs artificial, and leſs hampered with rules. It is maintained with more complacency, and relinquiſhed not without hope of renewal. We too have now indeed abandoned a part of its more inconvenient formalities; but ſome of its oppreſſive and deſpotic laws continue unaltered. The exterior may be changed; but the ſubſtance is identical.

In the eaſt, they who are guilty of exceſs in drinking bury their inebriation in the gloom of their cloſet. By this, preſent diſturbance, and future ill example are equally obviated, whatever may be the ill conſequence to the wretched victim of intemperance.

Of

Of excess in eating there are few examples: for their longest meals, even when a series of dishes is presented, as at the tables of a Pacha or Bey, are terminated in a few minutes. The moderation and temperance of diet indeed throughout the east, are matters of high praise; and, whether virtues of climate, habit, or reflection, merit imitation among ourselves. The reward is present, uninterrupted health and tranquillity of mind.

If the multitude of wants constitute human inquietude, it must be remembered how much of what to us is indispensible, is to them, as if it had never been.

With them society is rendered tranquil and easy by mutual forbearance; with us it is vexed with the necessity of mutual adulation.—In the one region each man sets a fashion to himself, in the other all the constituent parts are wearied with serving an idol, that the collective body alone has set up. Each stands bareheaded from respect to the other, when both might remain covered without inconvenience to either.

Politeness is with the one, an easy compliance, with which all are satisfied; with the other, it is a difficult effort, from the practice and the experience of which the parties mutually retire discontented.

The fashions to which we are slaves, are indeed many of them so little founded in reason, that one is sometimes disposed to consider them as imagined, by the indolent and restless, to occupy the thoughts and time of those who have no better employment; or invented like certain dogmas, to shew the merit of implicit credence. A certain dress is to be worn, a certain establishment kept up, under pain of indelible ignominy; and the man whose circumstances disable him from complying with this terrific mandate, with timid irresolution hides his head.

See the European in conversation, even among his equals, he is not so solicitous to express such thoughts as rise in his mind, as to find some employment for his tongue. It is not to give utterance to what naturally occurs, but that conversation may be *kept up*, that all are anxious. Garrulities and misconceptions are civilly uttered for arguments; and the abortions of fancy and caprice, hold the place of the same offspring of judgment and reflection. Yet we laugh at them for using short and few phrases (*phrases courtes et rares*, as Volney describes them) when they have nothing to say!

It is with them however neither ridiculous nor irksome to be silent. They go into company to be diverted, not to labour, and they esteem effort in conversation a vain toil. The raillery and repartee of the occidentals is, among them, supplied (it must be allowed very inadequately) by the *Meddahs*, story-tellers, and professed jokers.

Human life, in the east, is exposed to a variety of casualties. Pestilence, famine, tyranny, all conspire to diminish its security. It is natural to set a smaller value on any advantage, in proportion to the facility of privation. Hence the Orientals are not much disturbed at the thoughts of death, but resign life without a sigh. The mind is tortured when the blossoms of hope are suddenly torn from it; but their gradual decay is not incompatible with a kind of tranquillity.

The European, more dissatisfied with the present, and only supported by the hope of what is to come, attached beyond measure to the advantages which his anxieties have been prolonged to acquire, has already, even at an early age, fixed to himself a period, short of which he thinks it *hard* and *unjust* to be deprived of life.

Concerning past events, the fatalist is consoled by reflecting, that nothing he could have done would have alter-

ed the immutable order of things, and that his efforts before would have been as vain as his regret now is. This idea, indeed, is perhaps not deſtitute of ill effects, but it ſurely produces ſome good. If, by perſuading them that the evils which they ſuffer are unavoidable, it prevents them from endeavouring to avoid them, it alſo prevents their repining at what muſt at all events be endured as the immutable law of the univerſe.

The European attributing more power to volition, aſcribes to his own want of judgment or energy the reſult of whatever terminates unfavourably. Thus a part of his life is occupied by ſelf-accuſation, which, however, enſures no amelioration for the future.

In the eaſt, if age be reſpected, it is reſpected, in part at leaſt, from the decorous behaviour of the aged. In Europe, if it be rendered ridiculous, it is ſo too often, by a vain effort to perpetuate the manners and character of youth.

The commanding influence of a ſyſtem ſo flattering to the pride of its poſſeſſors, and operating ſo powerfully on their hopes and fears as Mahommediſm, aided by the dread of preſent ſuffering, has ſo far counteracted the ſtrong impulſe of avarice, that *gaming* is in a great degree baniſhed from the eaſt. All the evils and inconveniences therefore of that practice ſo ſeverely felt throughout Europe, are almoſt unknown in the Turkiſh empire.

If activity and a careful proviſion for the future, and that each ſhould contribute his efforts to the good of the whole, be neceſſary to conſtitute the happineſs of a people, how happens it that the Orientals, among whom theſe requiſites are wanting, ſhould yet be happy?

The ſyſtem of morals contained in the writings of the Orientals, is at once ſublime without being impracticable, and levelled to the uſe of mankind, without being looſe or low. Yet it is uſual with us to talk of their brutal ſtupidity! But this ſyſtem is not practiſed among them—and is the Chriſtian ſyſtem of morals practiſed among Chriſtian nations?

The Arabian and Perſian hiſtories and romances abound with traits of magnanimity, of generoſity, juſtice, and courage, no way inferior to, but in ſome inſtances exceeding thoſe of other nations. The Greeks and ourſelves have indeed ſtigmatiſed them with the name of barbarians; but impartial enquiry proves that they are ſuſceptible of all that is admired in a poliſhed people; that crimes are treated among them as among other nations, and that though their paſſions may be expreſſed in a different way, they have always the ſame ſource and the ſame object.

No man who reflects on his paſt enjoyments and ſufferings can doubt but that the latter, by their intenſeneſs, duration, and frequency, have been decidedly predominant.

To render them more equal, that is, to be leſs miſerable, or to make life tolerable, either the number of pleaſures muſt be augmented, according to the ſyſtem of the epicureans, or that of pains muſt be diminiſhed, according to that of the ſtoics. The Orientals ſtrive to attain the one object like ourſelves, by ſenſuality; and here it is not to be conceived that they are happier than we are; but the other they gain in a much more complete degree than ourſelves, and are much more exerciſed in the ſtoical ſyſtem, which ſeems the moſt effectual to the purpoſe.

The paſſions, indeed, it is ſaid, are to the mind what motion is to the body; and the abſence of either cauſes, and marks in each reſpectively, ſymptoms that may be termed morbid.

A perfect abſence of paſſion is certainly preternatural, if it may not be called

called impoſſible; but as our paſſions are more likely to be called into action, by painful than by pleaſureable ſenſations, it ſeems little doubtful, that the mind on which they operate moſt feebly, will remain in the moſt tranquil ſtate. This tranquillity, this abſence of pain, (for joy, however poignant, is but a tranſient gleam, a coruſcation, which paſſing, renders the obſcurity which ſucceeds it more ſenſible) is the ſingle ſpecies of happineſs of which mankind is allowed to partake.

A man of great ſenſibility has his feelings hourly wounded by minute accidents, at which one of leſs lively ſenſations would ſmile.

Such a one is tranſported with love, and, if that love be ſucceſsful, his gratification is exquiſite. He is ſuddenly moved by compaſſion,—how refined his feeling in offering relief to diſtreſs! He ardently deſires fame—how he is elated with the ſlighteſt praiſes! But how often is his warm affection requited with neglect, or its gratification found impoſſible? How often will his compaſſion be excited, without the means of affording relief? And how much more is mankind diſpoſed to obloquy than to eulogy?

But this is not all; the ſame mind which is ſtrongly acted on by theſe paſſions, will alſo have its peace diſturbed by pride, ambition, anger, jealouſy, and reſentment. The ſubjects of all theſe tormenting paſſions crowd on it too cloſely to allow its complacency to be permanent. The ſunſhine of the morning will inevitably, ere night, be ſucceeded by a tempeſt. Some ſlight omiſſion of ceremonial will offend its pride, ſome ſordid repulſe will check its ambition; it will flame with anger, at the breaking of a jar, or pine with jealouſy at the like frailty in a miſtreſs.

Something of the ſame kind has taken place with regard to taſte. A man of delicate taſte feels refined enjoyment from the contemplation of a beautiful landſcape or a fine picture, or the peruſal of an elegant poem; and is equally diſguſted at the ſight of any thing deformed, diſproportioned, or unnatural in either. But, it may be ſaid, he has the option of contemplating a diſagreeable object, but not of feeling an unpleaſant ſenſation. And is it indeed ſo eaſy, in being perpetually converſant among mankind, to avoid obſerving their works? or does not the man who reads, unavoidably fall on abſurdities which diſguſt him? Social men have been too long employed in counteracting nature, not to have moulded all to his dwarfiſh intellect; and the abortive efforts of imagination are numberleſs both in the arts and in letters.

Then it will be ſaid, human happineſs is reduced to apathy; and the lively taſte and ardent paſſions, which have eſtabliſhed the ſuperiority of Europeans, only ſerve to diminiſh their ſum of felicity! This would be puſhing the argument too far; but each will draw his own concluſions.

The chief points of contraſt between the Europeans and the Orientals being thus marked, it will be ſeen how far it may be doubted on which ſide lies the greater degree of happineſs.

DESCRIPTION OF A VOLCANIC ISLAND RECENTLY FORMED IN THE VICINITY OF ICELAND.

IN the ſpring of 1783, a *volcanic iſland* was formed in the vicinity of Iceland, which, according to the accounts of the navigators who that year viſited the country, attracted no ſmall notice. The diſcoverer of it, who arrived juſt at the time of the firſt eruption, when ſmoke and flames aſcended out of the ſea, relates that no iſland or any land could be ſeen, from which theſe flames could originate.—No wonder, then, that he fell into the greateſt

greatest consternation, when, as he expresses himself he saw the waves on fire.—Captain and crew therefore conceived the notion, that the day of judgment was at hand; and took to their prayer and hymn-books, devoutly to prepare themselves for their approaching end. But as no trumpet sounded, as the sun remained undarkened, and the firmament undisturbed, they began to reflect farther what it might be, and at last hit upon the thought, that Iceland had been sunk by an earthquake, and that this was the last remains and ejection of Hecla, the well known burning mountain on that island. Wholly possessed with this idea, they were on the point of tacking about and returning to Denmark with the news of the dreadful event; but luckily they had not proceeded far before they got sight of the coast of Iceland.

The site of the volcanic eruption lies only $7\frac{3}{4}$ nautical miles (15 to a degree) from the south-west point of Iceland; and they had not discovered any land: but having now been convinced of their mistake respecting the submersion of Iceland, the ship reached its destined port, and completed its voyage. Ships that arrived afterwards saw a small island from which the volcanic eruption proceeded: and as may well be conceived, always saw it under a different form. The same year smoke and flames were perceived on the shores next adjacent to Iceland.

As there are numerous instances of such volcanic eruptions in the sea becoming an island, this phenomenon attracted the attention of the Danish Government; and the following year orders were given to all ships bound to Iceland, to examine the newly formed island: but so entirely had it vanished, that none of them either saw or could discover the smallest trace of it. However towards the end of the year, a very unfortunate accident happened, which was occasioned, beyond all doubt, by some rocks under water, the remains of the vanished island.

A Danish ship of war, of sixty-four guns, called the *Indsofretten*, was expected back from the East Indies; and intelligence had been received, that she had already sailed from the Cape of Good Hope: but from that time nothing farther was heard of her until the year 1785; when the ships returning from Iceland reported, that some parts of that ship, and the long-boat, had been thrown on the coast of Iceland. From all accounts, and a comparison of circumstances, to me it appears certain, that the *Indsofretten* foundered on this rock, which now no longer rises above the surface of the sea. It is impossible that such a long-boat can come out of a ship, except it be done by the hands of men, even should the ship be all shattered to pieces. Now, not only was this long-boat driven on shore whole, and in good condition; but they, moreover, found in it a box of wax-candles, but not a living soul. At the distance of about a quarter of a mile from the boat, they discovered several parts of the same ship, which were known from the mark upon them. These parts, of different dimensions and form, would not have been thrown on shore so near to one another, if the shipwreck had happened at a greater distance; the waves of the sea, the currents, &c. must undoubtedly, in that case, have scattered them farther asunder. Moreover, the fragments had been wafted to the land by the wind which blows in the direction from the rock.—Besides, no other traces of this misfortune had been noticed along the coast of Iceland.

From these circumstances I drew the conclusion, that the *Indsofretten* had, after leaving the Cape of Good Hope on her return home, a dangerous and adverse passage; for it is known that in our Northern Seas in that year, east winds generally prevailed. Very many ships, especially the ships of war, prefer going north round England,

land, to ſailing through the Channel: and probably the ſhip may have been in want of ſomething; as, for example, freſh water, and the like. The Captain was, at any rate, well acquainted in Iceland; for I myſelf had ſome years before, been there with him as Lieutenant of a ſhip under his command; he may, then, have been in ſearch of ſome of the harbours of Iceland, when he had the misfortune, in the open ſea, unexpectedly to ſtrike on this hidden rock. In this deſperate ſituation, the crew probably had recourſe to the long-boat, as the only means of ſaving at leaſt a few of them; but while they were hoiſting it overboard, it is likely that the ſhip foundered, and every ſoul on board periſhed, as no intelligence was ever received concerning them.

During my expedition to Iceland in the year 1786, it became an object of my particular attention, to make enquiries concerning this *volcanic iſland*, although no one then ſuſpected that the above-mentioned ſhip of war had been wrecked at that place; for this is only a concluſion which I have drawn from what I learned during my inveſtigation of the ſubject.

When I arrived in Iceland, where, on account of the obſervations for the maps, and of other affairs committed to my care, I found myſelf under the neceſſity of remaining with my ſhip a conſiderable time in *Holmens-Haſen*, and had at my diſpoſal a ſmall ſhip lying in that harbour; I ordered Lieutenant, now Captain, Grove, to proceed on a cruiſe about the place where the volcanic iſland had been ſeen. He continued there ſeveral days and while under ſail frequently caſt the ſounding lead, but could find no bottom, with a line of a hundred or more fathoms, and had given up all hopes of making the deſired diſcovery. When he was on the point of returning, he, contrary to all expectation, obſerved the waves breaking on a rock, whoſe top was nearly on a level with the ſurface of the water: and now, no longer doubting that he had found what he had been in ſearch of, he obſerved its direction and diſtance from the neareſt coaſt of Iceland.

When the object of my expedition was accompliſhed, and I, at the concluſion of ſummer, was preparing to commence my voyage homewards; I determined before my departure to viſit this remarkable ſpot myſelf, and to correct or confirm its true geographical ſituation, as far as it can be aſcertained by obſervations made at ſea. —I therefore took my point of departure from ſome ſmall iſlands or rocks, which lie in front of Cape *Reikianes*, the moſt ſouth-weſt promontory of Iceland, and of which the outermoſt, called the *Grenadier's Cap*, is $3\frac{1}{4}$ mile, diſtant from the promontory, in the direction from S. W. to W. The weather proving favourable, I was able to make a meridian obſervation for determining the latitude, as likewiſe obſervations of the longitude by means of time-keepers. Although the time-keepers I had with me were none of the beſt; yet, as I had ſailed on the ſame day from an Icelandic harbour, where I had obſerved the longitude, the relative error could not be very conſiderable: I therefore determined the ſituation of the rock called the *Grenadier's Cap*, to be in 63° 43′ 40″ N. latitude, and 25° 35′ 40″ longitude, weſt from Paris. This likewiſe tolerably well coincides with the obſervations of the French navigators, *Verdun*, *De la Crenne Borda*, and *Pingre*; the more, as I have good reaſons for believing, that, from want of a ſufficient knowledge of the coaſts of Iceland, they made the latitude of Cape *Reikianes* three minutes too far north; for they ſtated it to be 63° 55′. And as, from the moſt accurate obſervations, I found that the rock lies in a direction from ſouth to weſt, according to the true meridian, and juſt four miles from the above-mentioned *Grenadier's Cap*, it follows, that the ſituation of this moſt danger-

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ous rock is in 63° 32′ 45″ of N. latitude, and 26° 2′ 50″ West longitude from Paris.

While I was continuing my course in order to get a view of the rock, and Captain Grove, who was on board with me, concluded from his former observations, that we must be near it, as the coast of Iceland had totally vanished from our sight, and the outermost of the above named visible rocks, which lie south-west from Iceland, was, notwithstanding the clearness of the weather, scarcely any longer perceivable; he said, "Is it advisable to sail so directly towards it?"—"Yes, my friend," was my answer; "for, on which ever side we turn, we shall have as great a chance of striking upon it, as of escaping the danger: it is like looking for a needle in a load of hay."—As we were thus conversing about it, the people on the watch called out.—The attention and eyes of all were directed towards it, and we saw directly a-head of us the waves breaking against a rock. We instantly tacked about, and, at the same time, hove the lead, which had been kept in readiness. We found the depth to be 26 fathoms; immediately after, 40 fathoms; and shortly after we could not find the bottom with a line a hundred fathoms long. Tallow was, as usual, applied to the plummet, that we might be able to judge of the nature of the ground from the particles that thus adhered to it. We obtained small pieces of stone, which either wholly consisted of lava, or at least were of the volcanic kind. The rock is not large, and, as appears from our soundings, surrounded by a steep abyss. Its top is level with the surface of the sea, or only a little beneath it: hence it cannot be perceived till we are very near it, or only when the waves break against it.

The origin of the *volcanic island* which was seen at this place in the year 1783, may be explained in the following manner: The rock that still remains, formed the crater from which an eruption at that time happened; the great quantity of lava that was ejected accumulated at the bottom of the sea around the crater, till it rose to a considerable height above the surface of the water. But as this volcano is situated on the wide ocean, where the largest and most violent waves arise, and tower one over another, it is probable that their force very soon destroyed a structure that possessed yet so little solidity and strength; especially as round about there is an ingulfing abyss, into which it might easily be precipitated. It is to be remembered likewise, that, in the same year, a considerable quantity of pumice, and the like volcanic productions, whose specific gravity is less than that of water, was driven on shore in Iceland, and by navigators found swimming in the ocean.

Had the eruption happened in a less tempestuous sea, and the profundity around it been less steep and unfathomable, the ejected mass would have been consolidated by its own weight, and in time have become an island; of which we have seen several instances in the Archipelago, in the East Indies, and in other places of the ocean. Had this volcanic eruption taken place on the main land, or on an island, a mountain would have been formed by it. A volcano does not necessarily originate from a mountain; they have been seen to burst forth from the plain: but a necessary consequence is, that the ejected productions, which are heaped up upon the land, at last become a mountain.—Now, as here the mighty waves of the ocean could easily wash away the loose accumulations around the crater, it is not absurd to suppose, that as the sea raged over its mouth, the fire was at last overpowered, and the volcano extinguished by the water gushing down the opening.

The crater, formed of rock, remained standing. It is an undoubted

fact, that there exifted here a rock even before the eruption of the volcano: and later obfervations evince, that it ftill exifts.—There was before an obfcure tradition among the mariners who were wont to fail to Iceland, that hereabout there was a blind rock, which they called *Blind Fugle-Skior* (bird rock). This name I have retained in the chart, though many navigators deny its exiftence, becaufe they have often failed paft without obferving it. But in this cafe, and under fuch circumftances, the affertion of one man that he had feen it, deferves more credit than the reports of a hundred others, who deny its exiftence becaufe they have not feen it. This confirms me in my opinion, that the crater was in the fame ftate long before the eruption.

To conclude: it will not be deemed a fuperfluous obfervation, to ftrengthen this opinion, that in almoft the fame direction from the fouth-weft point of Iceland, as has been remarked above, lie five *fmall iflands*, or rocks, the outermoft of which is $3\frac{1}{4}$ miles diftant from the promontory *Reikianos*. Between thefe iflands is deep water; and fhips failing to or from the weft fide of Iceland commonly pafs that way, if they be fufficiently acquainted with the fituation of the land and rocks. The latter are called by the Danifh mariners, *Vogel-Klippen* (Bird-rocks), on account of the numbers of fea-fowl reforting to them: but the natives of the country give them the name of *Eld-Eyarne*, that is *Fire Iflands*. May we not thence infer, that, in ancient times, they had volcanic eruptions? And, indeed, the volcano feen in 1783 may likewife have raged long before that period.

By Chevalier Von Lowenhorn, Naval Captain in the Danifh Service.

AN ACCOUNT OF THE FREEZING OF THE NEVA; AND THE EMPRESS ANNA'S PALACE OF ICE.

From Mr Tooke's View of the Ruffian Empire.

THE covering of the Neva with ice, and the breaking up of it, are remarkable phenomena. When the ice is fetting in, as it is called, fmall detached flakes of ice are feen floating down the current, which foon grow into large fields, and acquire fo great a momentum, that the bridges muft be haftily taken afunder, to prevent their being carried away by the ice, a difafter which has happened more than once. Thefe large plains of ice continue for a day or two paffing with the current, while the boats are feen rowing between them; till all at once the floating ice ftops, either by the gulf being already clofed below, or the flakes of ice freezing together: when immediately foot paffengers, who have been waiting on the fhores for this happy moment, go over in all fafety. Nothing is more common than to fee boats croffing the river, and, in two hours afterward, to behold handreds of people going over on foot.

No lefs rapid is the departure of the ice. In the fpring, the firft indication of this approaching event, is the ftanding of the fnow-water on the ice; then the ice becomes more porous, or divides into fpiculæ, lets the water through, and becomes of a blackifh colour. At length it parts, while the roads that have been well trod during the winter ftill remain; fo that often foot paffengers are feen on thefe roads, and between them and the floating flakes of ice, boats in great numbers paffing and repaffing. By the force of the current, and fhocks received from the floating ice, at length the roads give way; the ice continues to fall down with the ftream for a day or two to the gulf, and the whole river is clear. A week or a fortnight after this, the ice of the Ladoga comes down; which, according

as the wind may happen to be, continues a couple or more days, sometimes as many weeks, and renders the atmosphere uncommonly chill.

The ice and the cold are of service to the inhabitants in various ways. Distances are much shortened by their means, inasmuch as people, horses, and carriages of all sorts, and of ever so great burden, can cross the Neva, and the other rivers, lakes, and canals, in all places and directions: and the Cronstadt gulf supplies, in some measure, the want of navigation during the winter, by the transport of commodities of every denomination over the ice. As ice cellars here are a necessary of life for keeping provisions of all kinds during the summer, so every house in every quarter of the town is provided with one of them, to be filled with large blocks cut out of the river. This operation generally takes place about the beginning of February. The ice also promotes the pleasure of the inhabitants, by giving them an opportunity for the diversion of sledge and horse-racing, and for that of the ice-hills so much admired by the populace. The weight of these ice-hills, together with that of a multitude sometimes of 5000 or 6000 persons standing about them on holidays, give the spectator a surprising idea of the strength and solidity of the ice.

What may be executed in ice was shown by the ice palace which the Empress Anna caused to be built on the bank of the Neva, 1740. It was constructed of huge quadrats of ice hewn in the manner of free stone: the edifice was fifty-two feet in length, sixteen in breadth, and twenty in height. The walls were three feet thick. In the several apartments were tables, chairs, beds, and all kinds of household furniture of ice. In front of the palace, beside pyramids and statues, stood six cannons carrying balls of six pounds weight, and two mortars, of ice. From one of the former, as a trial, an iron ball, with only a quarter of a pound of powder, was fired off. The ball went through a two-inch board, at sixty paces from the mouth of the cannon; and the piece of ice artillery, with its lavette, remained uninjured by the explosion. The illumination of the ice palace at night had an astonishingly grand effect.

ACCOUNT OF THE ROCK OR ICE FOX.

OF the rock, or ice fox, to be found in incredible numbers on the islands of the Frozen and Eastern Oceans, we have the following curious account, from Steller's travels *.

"During my unfortunate abode in Baring's Island, I had opportunities more than enough for studying the nature of this animal, far excelling the common fox in impudence, cunning, and roguery. They forced themselves into our habitations by night as well as by day stealing all that they could carry off. Even things that were of no use to them, as knives, sticks, our clothes, &c. They were so inconceivably ingenious, as to roll down our casks of provisions, several *poods* of weight, and then to steal the meat in them so ably, that at first we could not bring ourselves to ascribe the theft to them. As we were stripping an animal of its skin, it often happened that we could not avoid stabbing two or three of these foxes, from their rapacity in tearing the flesh out of our hands. If we buried it ever so carefully, and added stones to the weight of earth that was upon it, they not only found it out, but shoved away the stones, as men would have done, with their shoulders, and lying under them, helped one another with all their might. If thinking to secure it, we put any on the top of a high post in the

* Addressed to John George Gmelin, who travelled to Siberia by order of the Empress Anne.

the air, thay grubbled up the earth at the bottom, ſo that the poſt and all came tumbling down, or one of them clambered up, and threw down what was upon it with incredible artifice and dexterity. They watched all our motions, and accompanied us in whatever we were about to do. If the ſea threw up an animal of any kind they devoured it, ere a man of us could come up, to our great diſadvantage; and if they could not conſume it all at once, they trailed it away in portions to the mountains, where they buried it under the ſtones before our eyes, running to and fro as long as any thing remained to be conveyed away. While this was doing, others ſtood upon guard, and watched us. If they ſaw any one coming at a diſtance, the whole troop combined at once, and began digging together in the ſand, till they had ſo fairly put a beaver, or ſeal-bear, under the ſurface, that not a trace of it was to be ſeen. In the night-time, when we ſlept in the field, they came and pulled off our night-caps, and ſtole our gloves from under heads, with the beaver coverings and the ſkins that we lay upon.

"When we made a halt to reſt by the way, they gathered around us, and played a thouſand tricks in our view: and when we ſat ſtill, they approached us ſo near, that they gnawed the thongs of our ſhoes. If we laid down, as if intending to ſleep, they came and ſmelled at our noſes, to try whether we were dead or alive; if we held our breath, they gave ſuch a tug at the noſe, as if they would bite it off. On our firſt arrival, they bit off the noſes, fingers,, and toes of our dead, while we were prepairing the grave, and thronged in ſuch a manner about the infirm and the ſick, that it was with difficulty we kept them off. Every morning we ſaw theſe audacious animals patrolling about among the ſea-lions and ſea-bears lying on the ſtrand, ſmelling at ſuch as were aſleep, to diſcover whether ſome of them might not be dead; if that happened to be the caſe, they proceeded to diſſect him immediately, and preſently after all were at work in dragging parts away: becauſe the ſea-lions of a night in their ſleep, frequently overlay their young, they examine, as if conſcious of this circumſtance, the whole herd, every morning, one by one, and immediately drag away the dead cubs from their dams."

ADDRESS FROM THE BATH AND WEST OF ENGLAND SOCIETY.

AT ſuch a time as the preſent, and with proſpects ſo peculiar, if not alarming, the minds of all reflecting and provident perſons muſt be more or leſs affected with ſolicitude. Nor can it be offenſive to the Supreme Ruler of ſeaſons and elements for ſolicitude to appear. It is not now to be doubted that the unuſual long ſeries of wet and ſtormy weather will have rendered the harveſt of this year proportionately unproductive, through the greater part of the nation. The Crops of Bread Corn in particular have extenſively ſuffered, and the common cauſes of great ſcarcity and dearneſs have largely operated. Scarcity and dearneſs are therefore to be expected; and it will be equally vain and illiberal to complain of farmers, millers, and bakers. It becomes highly neceſſary, that all the means of leſſening ſcarcity, which can be wiſely adopted, be ſo adopted without loſs of time. I would by no means hold out the language of deſpondency, for which I humbly truſt, there is yet no cauſe. But *economy*, ever becoming mankind, and ever conducive to the beſt intereſts of ſociety, is now become a duty peculiarly urgent on *all perſons*, whatever be their ſtation, whatever be their means of procuring and diſpenſing the neceſſaries of life. To a ſerious *economy*, therefore, reſpecting all the articles

articles of ſubſiſtence, I preſume to beſpeak the cloſe attention of my fellow-citizens. In order to begin, and proceed wiſely it becomes neceſſary, that we ſhould all conſider well the means placed by Providence within our power.

However juſtifiable and proper for the good of the whole *ſpeculations* in large purchaſes of the articles of neceſſity may *ſometimes* be, ſuch a time as the preſent (unleſs in the grand article of *import*) is not a proper one for *ſpeculations* on the markets. It would be particularly injurious to the public good. It cannot increaſe *quantity*, already precarious; but it may, and muſt neceſſarily, give the appearance and effect of real ſcarcity to a dangerous degree. To men accuſtomed to ſuch *ſpeculations*, therefore, and covetous of gain, I would earneſtly urge the duty of preſent *forbearance*. The contrary conduct would be a moral evil on ſociety, for which they cannot poſſibly atone: it would be to incur guilt, for which no puniſhment, if the laws inflicted it, could be adequate. The conduct rightly to be obſerved is, a regular, and a barely neceſſary, ſeries of purchaſing, from the grower and factor to ſupply the regular calls of the conſumer, from week to week: this I apply *chiefly* to the important article of wheat: but as other articles of grain, particularly rye and barley, may be neceſſarily brought in aid of the general demand for bread, by way of *mixture*, in many parts of the nation, thoſe articles ſhould alſo be purchaſed with ſimilar diſcretion—and full crops of the latter, however diſcoloured and damaged by wet, give reaſon to hope, that much may be ſpared from the common uſes to which it is applied. Such *mixtures*, when fairly declared, known, and appreciated, will be equally fair and uſeful; neither can a partial uſe of ſuch bread in families be found a ſerious hardſhip, when the urgency of the times may render it ſtrictly prudent. Horſe corn, particularly the beſt *oats*, ſhould be uſed more ſparingly for horſes than is common in plentiful ſeaſons—and for numerous horſes, not ſeverely worked, a diminution may be largely made. Thus the beſt oats may in ſome degree be brought in aid for making oat-cake, which is both a pleaſant and wholeſome article. The whole ſtock of boiling peas, except what are wanted for ſeed, ſhould be gradually uſed up, during winter: for which purpoſe they ſhould be introduced frequently in families, where they can be purchaſed. Potatoes and all vegetables ſhould be made the moſt of, in ſoups, with an economical uſe of all animal ſubſtance, adapted for that wholeſome ſpecies of cookery: and ſpecial care ſhould be taken to guard againſt the *waſte* of ſervants. Rice, millet, &c. ſhould be enquired after, and their nutrition turned to the beſt account: and ſhould a favourable import of rice happen, the ſtock, at whatever prices rendered, ſhould be gradually conſumed, and chiefly by the frequent uſe of plain baked puddings. A large part of the very abundant crop of apples ſhould be *timely* purchaſed by houſekeepers from the growers, to be conſtantly uſed in puddings and pies—ſo that the whole ſubſtance of the fruit may be chiefly conſumed at table, inſtead of being leſs providently ſent to the cyder-preſs.

Family *ſtores* of corn and flour, in times of ſcarcity, real or apprehended, is certainly *unwiſe*; for while they ſecure no *addition* to the general ſtock they muſt rapidly and uſeleſsly advance the prices to an alarming degree, they would be heavily felt by thoſe who cannot purchaſe for *ſtores*, and who, at whatever advanced prices, muſt be fed at their own or the public coſt. If all houſekeepers who can afford it were to attempt to purchaſe *a ſack*, or even *half a ſack*, of flour, the effect on the market would be prodigious, and go near to alarm many thouſands with

with ideas of famine, though no real cauſe of ſuch alarm exiſts. No general plan can be ſo prudent as to purchaſe corn and flour, rice, &c. *ſparingly*, as they are really wanted, from day to day. From the injury which much of our corn has received, an inferiority in the colour and quality of our flour and bread muſt be expected; but this alteration ſhould be borne without inconſiderately murmuring againſt the bakers, who cannot prevent, and who in dear times are always the objects of haſty cenſure, if not of unmerited abuſe.

To the foregoing remarks, it may be ſeaſonable to add, that in turning our attention to *wheat-ſowing* for a future crop, it is much to be wiſhed, that all farmers who have it in their power would *drill* their ſeed wheat, or reſort to the provident and ſucceſsful cuſtom of *dibbling*, on as large a ſcale as they can; for a ſaving of two thirds of the ſeed corn (the beſt of our wheat) muſt, at ſuch a juncture, be extremely important! This cuſtom has been ſo largely and happily purſued in Norfolk, that no reaſonable doubt can now be entertained of its ſucceſs: and a wiſe and good patriot is that man who will dare to deviate from his accuſtomed waſte of ſeed, in ſuch a ſeaſon as this. *Dropping* the ſeed after the *dibbles* will employ numerous children through the nation, and their extra earnings, out of the real ſavings of the farmer, will aſſiſt their poor parents, when they moſt need aſſiſtance.

The ravages and waſte, and neglect of agriculture, through many parts of Europe, conſequent on the ſcourge of warfare, may render much further importation of wheat difficult, even at high prices; but by regulating our conduct by ſuch ſteady rules of economy as I have thus taken the liberty to ſuggeſt, much difficulty, and perhaps ſome commotion, may be prevented; and, under the mercy of the Supreme Being, this nation may paſs on, without much ſuffering, to more proſperous ſeaſons. But only happy, and to be made happy, are all people, who, "in the day of adverſity conſider;" who, "when the judgments of the Lord are in the earth will learn righteouſneſs;" and who will humble themſelves under the rod of the Divine chaſtiſements!

W. MATTHEWS.

October, 1799.

OF THE GERMANS AND HUNGARIANS.

NEVER were two nations more diſſimilar in manners, dreſs, and appearance, than the German and the Hungarian. Even the ſuperſtition of Vienna is far outdone by that of Buda. The firſt object which I ſaw from my windows, on the morning after my arrival, were flagellants, marching ſlowly along the ſtreets, covered with blood, and dragging along croſſes of a vaſt weight, followed by crowds of people. It was Good Friday, and the whole city ſeemed to be animated by the ſame ſpirit of penitential and gloomy devotion. I could have fancied myſelf at Madrid, half a century ago. The flagellants wore hoods or ſacks over their faces, in order to conceal them; but their backs, which were entirely naked, bore the ſanguinary marks of the ſcourge at every ſtep. I am aſſured, that the perſons who inflict on themſelves this voluntary puniſhment, are frequently men of rank, and that the practice is by no means confined to the inferior orders.

Wraxall's Memoirs.

View of the Ruſſian Empire during the Reign of Catharine the Second, and to the cloſe of the preſent Century. By William Tooke, F. R. S. Member of the Imperial Academy of Sciences, and of the Free Economical Society at St Peterſburgh. 8vo. 3 Vols.

IN the advertiſement prefixed to the Firſt Volume, the ſubject of our preſent Review, Mr Took obſerves, "that Ruſſia, which, prior to the year 1762, was a ſort of *terra incognita* in our part of the globe, is now in poſſeſſion of a very conſiderable ſtore of materials, from which the preſent ſtate of this remarkable country may be deſcribed and illuſtrated; and this is owing to the care which the late Empreſs, during her whole reign, beſtowed on the cultivation of a general knowledge of all parts of her extenſive dominions. "The firſt and moſt important ſtep to the elucidation of the natural and moral condition of Ruſſia, was the appointment of the Academicians of St Peterſburgh to travel for the purpoſe of exploring its qualities in both theſe reſpects; and their journals ſtill form the baſis of all that we know with certainty of the internal ſtate of this vaſt empire. Theſe important diſcoveries aſſiſted the zeal of ſome induſtrious foreigners, who either in the country itſelf, or by correſpondence and connections, collected uſeful materials, and communicated the reſult of their labours to the public." Mr Tooke then adverts to ſome political regulations, which we ſhall notice in their proper place, that facilitated the further elucidation; and he then gives a liſt of the moſt celebrated foreign writers who have devoted their ſervices to this ſubject. "Still, however, the voluminous journals of the Academicians lay unopened to our country, and the travels of Pallas, Guldenſtaed, Georgi, Lepechin, Falk, the Gmelins, Fiſcher, and others, were in England known only by the occaſional mention of their extraordinary value, with deſerved encomiums on the talents and labours of their authors, in the reports of our countrymen, on their return from a tranſient viſit to Peterſburgh."

"Having paſſed," ſays our author, "the greater part of the long reign of the late Empreſs in her dominions, favoured for many years with the friendſhip and intimacy of two ſucceſſive Directors of the Academy, with free acceſs to its libraries and collections, and being perſonally acquainted with ſeveral of the travellers themſelves, I preſume to lay before the public this View of the Ruſſian Empire, in which I have faithfully followed the authors above mentioned, and delivered my vouchers wherever it was neceſſary, as the reader will generally find at the bottom of the page. I have beſtowed much care and pains in the compilation of this work from thoſe learned writers and other authentic ſources; and this is all the merit to which I pretend; I am far more apprehenſive that ſome things ſhould, in ſpite of all my diligence, be found repeated, than that any thing of conſequence is omitted.

"Ruſſia, at the opening of the preſent century, made her appearance all at once among the ſtates of Europe; and, after a ſhort trial of her powers, became the umpire and arbitreſs of the North. The whole ſyſtem of Europe took another form: the *Artic* Eagle extended her influence to the regions of the Adriatic and the banks of the Tagus, while the lightning of her eye ſtruck terror into the receſſes of Mount Caucaſus, and made the Helleſpont tremble. The arts of Europe were tranſplanted and bloomed both on the ſhores of the Neva and thoſe of the Jrytſh; a new world was opened to commerce; and the ſciences, the manners, the luxury, and the vices of Weſtern Europe have found their way into the deſerts of Oriental Aſia, and to the inhoſpitable coaſts of the frozen ocean. The æra of this memorable phenomena was the commencement of the 18th century—arrived now at the extreme verge of that period, it muſt be curious and inſtructive to look back and compare the two epochas together. To conſider what Ruſſia was at the beginning, to ſee what the ſucceſſors of Peter I. have built on the foundation laid by that great and aſpiring genius; what progreſs has ſince been made by civilization; and what impreſſion the rapid and violent introduction of foreign manners, the ſettlement of ſo many thouſand

thouſand foreigners, and the intercourſe with foreign nations, have produced."

The Introduction ſupplies us with further information to ſtrengthen the authorities upon which Mr Tooke ſo juſtly relies: we are therein, amongſt other things, made acquainted with the ſources from which the Academy of St Peterſburgh was furniſhed with the materials from which he compoſed the principal parts of his work. "It was about the middle of the year 1767, that the Empreſs conceived the project of ſending ſeveral learned men to travel into the interior of her vaſt territories, to be enabled themſelves to determine the geographical poſition of the principal places, to mark their temperature, and to examine into the nature of their ſoil, their productions, their wealth, as well as the manners and characters of the ſeveral people by whom they are inhabited."

A country of ſuch prodigious extent as the Ruſſian Empire muſt naturally attract the notice of every man who wiſhes to increaſe his knowledge, whether it be conſidered in regard to the number of tribes and nations by which it is inhabited, the great diverſity of climates under which they live, or the almoſt infinite quantity of natural curioſities with which it abounds. The plan traced by the Empreſs, in her inſtructions, was ſucceſsfully carried into execution; and the reſult forms the baſis of the preſent work. The natural ſtate of the Empire is the ſubject of the Firſt Book, divided into three Sections.

Section I. delineates the amplitude, boundaries, and diviſion; and contains geographical information, which will afford peculiar ſatisfaction to the ſtudents and admirers of that ſcience. A diſtinction is very properly made between thoſe principalities and provinces, which for many ages paſt have been inhabited by Ruſſians, and may be conſidered as the country originally denominated Ruſſia. But as it is well known that there are ſeveral Ruſſias, collectively conſtituting the Ruſſian Empire; and that the Sovereigns clearly point this out, by taking the title of Emperor or Empreſs of *all* the Ruſſias, a line of demarcation is eſſentially neceſſary, in order to attain a perfect knowledge of the topography of each. Great Ruſſia is in fact the mother country, if we may be allowed the expreſſion; the next in order are Little Ruſſia, White Ruſſia, and New Ruſſia. But by the Ruſſian Empire is likewiſe to be underſtood not only theſe, but alſo ſuch kingdoms, countries, and provinces, as have been at various times ſince added to it by conqueſts and appropriations. By inſpecting the map which accompanies the deſcription of each, the propriety of the following ſummary of the whole, in the words of the late Empreſs, will be acknowledged: "The Ruſſian Empire is diſtinguiſhed on the globe by the extent of its territory, which reaches from the Eaſtern borders of Kamtſhatka to beyond the River Duna, which falls into the Baltic at Riga; comprifing within its limits 165 degrees of longitude, extending from the mouths of the Rivers Volga, Keeban, Don, and Dnieper, which falls into the Caſpian, the Paulus Mœotis, and the Euxine, as far as the frozen ocean, over 32 degrees of latitude."

Section II. deſcribes the climate and quality of the ſoil; and this head affords a variety of uſeful and entertaining information, from which delicacy forbid copious extracts; our intention in this review being to recommend, not to injure, a work of ſuch utility. For this reaſon we ſhall only ſelect one curious circumſtance reſpecting the ſhutting up, and the opening of the Neva, at St Peterſburgh, after a froſt: "The earlieſt ſtanding of the ice, in a period of ſixty years, was October 20, 1766; and the lateſt breaking up, the 27th of April 1755. The lateſt ſtanding in of the ice was December 1, 1770; and the earlieſt breaking up, the 25th of March, 1746. Its ſtanding and breaking up, determines their winter and ſummer.

"On the breaking up of the ice, when the river is ſo far open as to be navigable for boats, the event is announced to the city by the firing of three cannons from the fortreſs. Upon this, the Surveyor of the Wharfs goes in a barge with the city flag flying, accompanied by other barges, to the fortreſs, and ſaluts it with ſeven guns; on which the fortreſs returns the ſalute with five. From the fortreſs he then proceeds to the Imperial winter palace, where, on being come near the ſhore, he again makes another diſcharge of cannon,

cannon, which is followed by three cheers from the crew, repeated by the companies of the numerous barges. This done, they all return in proceſſion to the place from whence they came. Previous to this ceremony, no boat may dare to ſhew itſelf on the Neva; but from that moment, any one may put that will; and ſo long as the river continues open, the riſing and ſetting of the ſun are noticed by a gun from the fortreſs.

"The ſeverity of the cold has not that effect either on man or beaſt, as the inhabitants of the Southern climates imagine. As to foreigners, they univerſally agree that they ſuffer much leſs from it, than from leſs degrees of it in other countries (which our Author attributes to the dryneſs of the atmoſphere during the froſt); and the natives from habit, are ſo inured to it, that the drivers and their horſes feel little or no inconveniency in purſuing their employment through the ſtreets of the town, and along the roads; though the beards of the former, and the muzzles of the latter, are covered with hoar froſt, and little icicles, from the congelation of their breath; and in the ſevereſt colds they travel all day, without receiving any detriment. Nay, even in from 20 to 25 degrees of cold, women will ſtand ſinging the linen through holes in the ice, four, five, or ſix hours together, often bare-foot, with their hands dripping in the water all the while, and their draggled petticoats ſtiff with ice."

The account of the nature of the froſt, with its variations, will afford ample ſatisfaction to the lovers of agriculture.

The names and proper deſcriptions of the oceans, ſeas, lakes, and rivers, are the ſubjects of Section 3, which cloſes the firſt Book.

Book II. comprizes an hiſtorical view of the nations of the Ruſſian Empire, divided into two ſections; by which we find that no leſs than *eighty-three* diſtinct nations are ſubjects of the Imperial Crown of Ruſſia; that the whole Ruſſian empire, at this time (1799), conſiſts of *forty-three* organized provinces, which are called governments or vice-royalties. Each government is again divided into ſeveral circles; ſome of the largeſt have a ſtill further diſtribution into diſtricts. Beſides theſe forty governments, there are two more countries having a military-civil conſtitution, namely, the country of the Donſkoy Kozaks, and the country of the Euxine Kozaks. Two-and-fifty provinces, therefore, properly ſpeaking, compoſe the Ruſſian Empire; the Georgian States, Kondelie, and Kakhetty, ſeveral petty diſtricts of people in the parts of Caucaſus, with the country of the Kirghis Kozaks, are to be reckoned among the countries under the protection and in the dependence of Ruſſia.

"No other country," ſays our Author, "throughout the globe, contains ſuch a mixture and diverſity of inhabitants. Ruſſians and Tartars, Germans and Mongols, Finns and Tungueſe, live here at immenſe diſtances, and in the moſt different climates, as fellow-citizens of one ſtate, amalgamated by their political conſtitution; but, by bodily frame, language, religion, manners, and mode of life, diverſified to the moſt extraordinary contraſts." The ſtatiſtical account of all theſe nations is accurately drawn up from hiſtory, as far as it could be obtained; and the reſt is ſupplied by other means equally to be relied on. It follows, that this partition of our Author's work is very extenſive, and replete with curious, intereſting, and entertaining information; rendered ſtill more ſo by the preſent political circumſtances, which ſeem likely to connect Great Britain and Ruſſia in bonds of permanent amity, and will naturally lead to a more ardent deſire to be better acquainted with its various inhabitants. The following deſcription of the native Ruſſians as a people, being drawn with great accuracy and impartiality, and founded on a long and intimate perſonal acquaintance with them, will ſerve to remove thoſe prejudices which have formerly been entertained reſpecting them by the poliſhed natives of the Southern kingdoms of Europe, chiefly on the teſtimony of writers who have repreſented them as a rude, unlettered, brutal race of mortals; but it muſt be remembered that the moral characteriſtics, portrayed by our Author, are confined to the native Ruſſians; for in the details of the manners and cuſtoms of ſome of the nations remote from the ſeat of government, we ſhall find whole tribes of people living almoſt in a ſtate of nature, and as ſavage

their diſpoſitions as the Indians of America.

"The general diſpoſition of the native Ruſſians is gay, careleſs even to levity, much addicted to ſenſuality, quick in comprehending whatever is propoſed, and not leſs prompt in its execution; ingenious in finding out means of abridging their work; in all their occupations, ready, alert, and dextrous. Violent in their paſſions, they eaſily miſtake the golden mean, and not unfrequently ruſh into the contrary extreme. They are attentive, reſolute, bold, and enterpriſing. To trade and barter they have an irreſiſtible impulſe. They are hoſpitable and liberal, frequently to their own impoveriſhment. Anxious ſolicitudes about the future, here cauſe but few grey pates. In their intercourſe with others they are friendly, jovial, complaiſant, very ready to oblige, not envious, ſlanderous, or cenſorious, and much given to ſecrecy. From their natural and ſimple way of life, their wants are few, and thoſe eaſily ſatisfied, leaving them leiſure for recreation and repoſe; and the conſtant cheerfulneſs of their temper frees them from troubleſome projects, procures them ſatisfaction in all ſituations, keeps them healthy and ſtrong, and brings them to an undiſquieted, contented, briſk, and ſometimes a very advanced old age.

"The State conſiſts of the nobility and peaſantry; but we may alſo admit the burgeſſes, a claſs which was conſtantly more and more raiſed and encouraged by the late Sovereign; to which may be added the Kozaks, as another order of the people. The nobility is compoſed of Princes, Noblemen, or Boyars; and in latter times, of Princes of the Roman Empire, Counts and Barons." Our author has omitted to notice, that all the ſons of a Ruſſian Prince are by courteſy ſtiled Princes; but that Princeſs are a lower, and not, as with us, the firſt claſs of nobility.

Beſides the Sclavonians, from whom the Ruſſians chiefly owe their origin, the empire has three main national ſtems, whoſe original identity is hiſtorically traced beyond all doubt, and among whom ſeveral other tribes are to be counted as relative or collateral branches; namely, Finns, Mongoles, and Tartars: it follows, that a diſtinct ample ſurvey of each occupies a very conſiderable part of our Author's elaborate work. The Sclavonians and Finns complete the Firſt Volume, with which we cloſe our preſent review.

Practical Education; by Maria Edgeworth, Author of "Letters for Literary Ladies;" and "The Parent's Aſſiſtant;"—and by Richard Lovel Edgeworth, F.R.S. and M.R.I.A. 4to. 1l. 10s. boards.

THEY who are convinced of the extenſive influence of education, in forming the individual and national character, will receive every effort to elucidate ſo important a ſubject with complacency and attention. The preſent publication deſerves and will reward both. To thoſe who are aware that education comprehends not only the mere inſtruction of an art or a ſcience, but that it concerns every thing which can be an object of ſenſe and reflection, from the coral of the infant to the playthings of maturer age, it will not be a matter of ſurpriſe that the firſt chapter of "Practical Education" ſhould be entitled "*Toys.*"

"Children may learn much from their playthings when they are judiciouſly choſen, and when the habit of reflection and obſervation is aſſociated with the ideas of amuſement and happineſs. A little boy of nine years old, who had had a hoop to play with, aſked "why a hoop or a plate, if rolled upon its edge, keeps up as long as it rolls, but falls as ſoon as it ſtops, and will not ſtand, if you try to make it ſtand ſtill upon its edge?" Was not the boy's underſtanding as well employed whilſt he was thinking of this phænomenon, which he obſerved whilſt he was beating his hoop, as it could poſſibly have been by the moſt learned preceptor? When a pedantic ſchoolmaſter ſees a boy eagerly watching a paper kite, he obſerves, "What a pity it is that children cannot be made to mind their grammar as well as their kites;" and he adds perhaps ſome peeviſh ejaculation on the natural idleneſs of boys, and that pernicious love of play againſt which he is doomed to wage perpetual war. A man of ſenſe will ſee the ſame ſight with a different eye; in this pernicious love of play he will diſcern the ſymptoms of a love of ſcience, and inſtead of deploring the

natural

natural idleneſs of children, he will admire the activity which they diſplay in the purſuit of knowledge. He will feel that it is his buſineſs to direct this activity, to furniſh his pupil with materials for freſh combinations, to put him or to let him put himſelf, in ſituations where he can make uſeful obſervations, and acquire that experience which cannot be bought, and which no maſters can communicate."

In the ſubſequent chapter, entitled "*Taſks*," the authors propoſe a new method of teaching to read. Without experience, it is impoſſible to pronounce deciſively on this plan. Seven children in the authors' family were taught to read in the ſame mode, and three in the common method; and from the difference of time, labour, and ſorrow, apparent between the two modes, they think that they "can ſpeak with confidence upon the ſubject, that nine-tenths of the labour and diſguſt of learning to read may be ſaved by this method; and that, inſtead of frowns and tears, the uſual harbingers of learning, cheerfulneſs and ſmiles may initiate willing pupils in the moſt difficult of human attainments."

Chap. 3. "*On Attention.*" Having, in the courſe of the foregoing chapter, obſerved that the firſt object in the early cultivation of the underſtanding was to fix the attention of children, or, in other words, to intereſt them in thoſe ſubjects to which we wiſh them to apply, the writers proceed, in the preſent chapter, to point out the general inducements and general precautions which are to be uſed in cultivating the power of attention. We ſelect the following paſſages, as illuſtrative of the principles inculcated on this ſubject.

"Whatever is connected with pain or pleaſure commands our attention; but to make this general obſervation uſeful in education, we muſt examine what degrees of ſtimulus are neceſſary for different pupils and in different circumſtances. We have formerly obſerved, that it is not prudent early to uſe violent or continual ſtimulus either of a painful or a pleaſurable nature, to excite children to application; becauſe we ſhould by an intemperate uſe of theſe weaken the mind, and becauſe we may with a little patience obtain all we wiſh without theſe expedients. Beſides theſe reaſons, there is another potent argument againſt uſing violent motives to excite attention; ſuch motives frequently diſturb and diſſipate the very attention which they attempt to fix. If a child be threatened with ſevere puniſhment, or flattered with the promiſe of ſome delicious reward, in order to induce his performance of any particular taſk, he deſires inſtantly to perform the taſk: but this deſire will not enſure his ſucceſs, unleſs he has previouſly acquired the habit of voluntary exertion, he will not be able to turn his mind from his ardent wiſhes, even to the means of accompliſhing them. He will be in the ſituation of Alnaſchar in the Arabian Tales, who, whilſt he dreamt of his future grandeur, forgot his immediate buſineſs. The greater his hope or fear, the greater the difficulty of his employing himſelf. To teach any new habit or art, we muſt not employ any alarming excitements; ſmall, certain, regularly recurring motives, which intereſt, but which do diſtract the mind, are evidently the beſt.

"The ancient inhabitants of Minorca were ſaid to be the beſt ſlingers in the world; when they were children, every morning what they were obliged to eat was ſlightly ſuſpended to high poles, and they were obliged to throw down their breakfaſt with their ſlings from the places where they were ſuſpended, before they could ſatisfy their hunger. The motive ſeems to have been here well proportioned to the effect that was required; it could not be any great misfortune to a boy to go without his breakfaſt; but as this motive returned every morning, it became ſufficiently ſerious to the hungry ſlingers. It is impoſſible to explain this ſubject ſo as to be of uſe, without deſcending to minute particulars. When a mother ſays to her little daughter, as ſhe places on the table before her a bunch of ripe cherries: "tell me, my dear, how many cherries are there, and I will give them to you;" the child's attention is fixed inſtantly; there is a ſufficient motive, not a motive which excites any violent paſſions, but which raiſes juſt ſuch a degree of hope as is neceſſary to produce attention. The little girl, if ſhe knows from experience that her mother's promiſe will be kept, and that her own patience is likely to ſucceed, counts the cherries carefully,

has

has her reward, and upon the next similar trial she will from this success be still more disposed to exert her attention. The pleasure of eating cherries, associated with the pleasure of success, will balance the pain of a few moments prolonged application; by degrees the cherries may be withdrawn, the association of pleasure will remain. Objects, or thoughts that have been associated with pleasure, retain the power of pleasing; as the needle touched by the loadstone acquires polarity, and retains it long after the loadstone is withdrawn."

Chap. 4. "*Servants.*" After having enumerated the various evils relating to the mind, manners, and dispositions of children, from the society of servants, the authors propose to remedy these evils, either by having persons properly educated for the purpose of attending on children, or by excluding the latter altogether from the company of servants.

Chap. 5. "*Acquaintance.*" The authors enter on this chapter by ridiculing, with some humour, the absurd language and behaviour of visiters, who begin to talk nonsense to children as soon as they are introduced, to flatter their vanity by praising their pretty shoes, or pretty locks, and, instead of setting an example of proper conversation, whine out an imitation of the child's half-formed sounds. After having noticed the folly of introducing children who may be thought clever, for the amusement of the company, and condemned the practice of attempting to try their capacities with quibbles and silly puzzles, the writers warn parents against the interference of friends and acquaintance in the education of their children; advising them to pursue steadily their own plans, without endeavouring to adapt their system to every fashionable change in opinion. Above all, it is recommended to the members of the family to agree entirely, if not in their sentiments, at least in their conduct towards the children under their care.

Chap. 6. "*Temper.*" This chapter contains many excellent observations on the propriety of attending early and constantly to the management of the temper; and it is interspersed with several little anecdotes, illustrative of the principles which the authors would advise the nurse, the parent, and the tutor, to proceed.

Chap. 7. "*Obedience.*" Here the authors insist on the necessity of creating habits of obedience; and that this is best accomplished by endeavouring to associate pleasure with those first acts of obedience which we require of children; or, in other words, by commanding them to do such things as are agreeable to them: and, in the next place, by extending our commands to such things only as, we are certain, they are able to do; since perseverance in enforcing our commands is essential towards creating habits of obedience.

"The means which have been pointed out for teaching the habit of obedience, must not be depended on for teaching any thing more than the mere habit. When children begin to reason, they do not act merely from habit; they will not be obedient at this age, unless their understanding is convinced that it is for their advantage to be so. Wherever we can explain the reasons for any of our requests, we should never attempt it; but whenever these cannot be fully explained, it is better not to give a partial explanation; it will be best to say steadily, "You cannot understand this now, you will perhaps understand it some time hence." Whenever we tell children, that we forbid them to do such and such things for any particular reason, we must take care that the reason alleged is adequate, and that it will in all cases hold good. For instance, if we forbid a boy to eat unripe fruit, because it will make him ill, and if afterwards the boy eat some unripe gooseberries without feeling ill in consequence of his disobedience, he will doubt the truth of the person who prohibited unripe fruit; he will rather trust his own partial experience than any assertion. The idea of hurting his health is a general idea which he does not yet comprehend. It is more prudent to keep him out of the way of unripe gooseberries, than to hazard at once his obedience and his integrity. We need not expatiate further; the instance we have given may be readily applied to all cases in which children have it in their power to disobey with immediate impunity; and what is still more dangerous, with the certainty of obtaining immediate pleasure. The gratification of their feelings and

and the desire of bodily exercise, ought never to be unnecessarily restrained. Our pupils should distinctly perceive that we wish to make them happy; and every instance, in which they discover that obedience has really made them happier, will be more in our favour than all the lectures we could preach. From the past they will judge of the future; children who have for many years experienced, that their parents have exacted obedience only to such commands as proved to be ultimately wise and beneficial, will surely be disposed from habit, from gratitude, and yet more from prudence, to consult their parents in all the material actions of their lives."

Obstinacy of temper is, in the opinion of the authors, almost wholly the creature of improper education; and therefore, though it be very difficult to cure this fault, it is very easily prevented.

Chap. 8. "On *Truth*." This chapter commences with some very sensible remarks on the impropriety of the method recommended by Rousseau, and others, for teaching truth by falsehood; and on the necessity of parents setting strict examples of truth in all their conversation, in public and private. The various causes are enumerated, which give birth in children to a propensity to falsehood, and the various means which are best calculated to create habits of truth. Among the former, the most prevalent and efficacious is *fear*. The influence of this passion, in disposing the mind to dissimulation, cunning, and falsehood, is exemplified in a few anecdotes respecting the Irish peasantry, (who are much exposed to oppression) and in the conduct of the negroes in the West Indies. Particular caution, therefore, should be used by parents, in avoiding to call forth fear in opposition to the dictates of truth. For this reason, the authors adopt the recommendation of Rousseau, never to question children in any circumstances in which either fear or interest would lead them to deceive.

"We should at least," says he, "treat children with the fine degree of wilfulness, which the English law extends to those who have arrived at years of discretion. No criminals bound to accuse themselves. If any fault has been committed, we should never, when we are uncertain by whom it has been done, either directly accuse, or betray injurious suspicions. We should neither say to the child I believe you have done this, nor I believe you have not done this; we should say nothing; the mischief is done, we cannot repair it: because a glass is broken, we need not spoil a child; we may put glasses out of his reach in future. If it should, however, happen that a child voluntarily comes to us with a history of an accident, my no love of goods or chattels, of windows, of china, or even of looking-glasses, come in competition with our love of truth. An angry word, an angry look, may intimidate the child, who has summoned all his little courage to make this confession. It is not requisite that parents should pretend to be pleased and gratified with the destruction of their furniture; but they may, it is to be hoped, without dissimulation, show that they set more value upon the integrity of their children, than upon a looking glass, and they will "keep their temper still though china fall."

For similar reasons, all injudicious restraints on eating, drinking, and exercise, should be avoided; as the temptations to break through these are frequently too strong for children to resist. Another temptation to falsehood is afforded to young minds by their love of praise; for they will frequently be tempted not only by the hope of obtaining well-earned praise, but by the desire of obtaining praise without the trouble of earning it:—the best remedy for which is to inspire children with a generous contempt for flattery, and to teach them to judge impartially of their own merits. This part of the subject is illustrated by two or three anecdotes of children, who, from mere habits of truth, have rejected the praise which they did not deserve, but which they might have received.—The necessity of creating habits of truth is best proved by the great difficulty of curing habits of falsehood. In respect to the method of curing these habits, the authors slightly touch on the principles to be observed: the mode and means of their application must be left to the discretion of the tutor; it would have been an endless and an idle task to have entered into the detail of the subject in the present publication.

(*To be continued.*)

Critic

Aſiatic Reſearches; or, Tranſactions of the Society inſtituted in Bengal, for inquiring into the Hiſtory and Antiquities, the Arts, Sciences, and Literature of Aſia. Vol. V. Printed verbatim from the Calcutta Edition. 8vo.

THE inveſtigations of this Society are bounded only by the geographical limits of Aſia. The field of their reſearches is not only immenſe, but fertile in every topic that can excite curioſity or furniſh entertainment. The members are not confined to Hindoſtan, but extend to China, to Japan, to Tartary, to Tibet, to the ſterile deſerts of Arabia, and to the beautiful provinces of Perſia.

A ſpace ſo unbounded has engaged the attention and care of the Aſiatic Society ſince its firſt inſtitution, and the topics of their inquiry have been vaſt and without meaſure. They have examined whatever is performed by man, or produced by nature, within the limits they have preſcribed to themſelves. They have exhibited accounts of natural productions; have examined the records of empires and ſtates; they have diſentangled the perplexities of pure and mixed mathematics; have ſpeculated on ethics and law; and, to unbend, in the ſofter amuſements of literature, have diſplayed the beauties of imagery and the charms of invention.

Objects ſo intereſting cannot but excite a deſire for a further acquaintance with them; four Volumes have been already publiſhed, and the Fifth now makes its appearance; but the lucubrations of the Aſiatic Society have not been ſo widely diffuſed as their merit deſerved. Nearly the whole of the impreſſion is diſtributed in the Eaſt Indies, therefore very few copies reach Europe; and this, amongſt other reaſons, has given riſe to the preſent republication, which contains the whole of the Tranſactions of the Society, without abridgment or mutilation.

We ſhall enumerate the contents of the preſent Volume in the order they ſtand, which will afford our readers a complete knowledge of the entertainment to be expected from a peruſal of it:

1. Hiſtorical Remarks on the Coaſt of Malabar, with ſome deſcription of the Manners of its Inhabitants. By Jonathan Duncan, Eſq.

2. An Account of two Fakeers, with their Portraits. By the ſame.

3. Enumeration of Indian Claſſes. By H. T. Colebrooke, Eſq.

4. Some Account of the Sculptures at Mahabalipoorum, uſually called the Seven Pagodas. By J. Goldingham, Eſq.

5. Account of the Hinduſtanee Horometry. By John Gilchriſt, Eſq.

6. On Indian Weights and Meaſures. By H. T. Colebrooke, Eſq.

7. On the City of Pegue, and the Temple of Shoemadoo Praw. By Captain Michael Symes.

8. Deſcription of the Tree called by the Burmas Launzun. By Francis Buchanan, M. D.

9. Specimen of the Language of the People inhabiting the Hills in the Vicinity of Bhagulpoor. By Major R. E. Roberts.

10. Account of the Diſcovery of two Urns in the Vicinity of Benares. By Jonathan Duncan, Eſq.

11. Account of ſome ancient Inſcriptions.

12. Obſervations on the alphabetical Syſtem of the Language of Awa and Rac'ham. By Capt. John Towers.

13. Some Account of the elaſtic Gum Vine of Prince of Wales's Iſland, and of Experiments made on the milky Juice which it produces. With Hints reſpecting the uſeful Purpoſes to which it may be applied. By James Howeſon, Eſq.

14. A botanical Deſcription of Urceola Elaſtica, or Caout-choue Vine of Sumatra and Pullo-pinang; with an Account of the Properties of its inſpiſſated Juice compared with thoſe of the American Caout-choue. By William Roxburgh, M. D.

15. Some account of the aſtronomical Labours of Jayaſinha, Rajah of Ambhere, or Jayanagar. By William Hunter, Eſq.

16. Deſcription of a Species of Meloe, an Inſect of the firſt Cleopterous Order in the Linnæan Syſtem, found in all parts of Bengal, Behar, and Oude, and poſſeſſing all the Properties of the Spaniſh Bliſtering fly, or Meloe Veſicatorius. By Captain Hardwicke.

17. Comparative Vocabulary of ſome of the Languages ſpoken in the Burman Empire. By Francis Buchanan, M. D.

18. Of

18. On the Chronology of the Hindus. By Captain Francis Wilford.

19. Remarks on the Names of the Cabirian Deities, and on ſome Words uſed in the Myſteries of Eleuſis. By the ſame.

20. Account of the Pagoda at Perwuttum. Extract of a Journal. By Captain Colin Mackenſie.

21. Remarks on the principal Æras and Dates of the ancient Hindus. By Mr John Bentley.

22. On the Religious Ceremonies of the Hindus, and of the Bramins eſpecially. By H. T. Colebrooke, Eſq.

23. The Rudhiradhyaya; or, Sanguinary Chapter. Tranſlated from the Calica Puran. By W. C. Blaquiere, Eſq.

24. Account of the Pearl Fiſhery in the Gulph of Manar in March and April 1797. By Henry J. Le Beck, Eſq.

25. Aſtronomical Obſervations made in the Upper Provinces of Hinduſtan. By William Hunter, Eſq.

Lectures on Diet and Regimen; being a ſyſtematic Inquiry into the moſt rational Means of preſerving Health and prolonging Life; together with Phyſiological and Chemical Explanations, calculated chiefly for the Uſe of Families, in Order to baniſh the prevailing Abuſes and Prejudices in Medicine. The Second Edition, improved and enlarged with conſiderable Additions. By A. F. M. Willich, M. D. 8vo.

WE muſt not expect to find in this work, a diſmal catalogue of diſeaſes, to which we poor mortals are liable, nor a liſt of their appropriate remedies; our author having aſſigned to himſelf the more pleaſing taſk of being the tutelary guardian of health and long life, by preſcribing the proper means of preſerving the firſt, and of attaining the laſt.

In the purſuit of this laudable deſign, he gives us an entertaining hiſtory of the different fallacious methods of preſerving health, and prolonging life, which have been obtruded upon mankind in all ages, and in moſt countries; diſtinguiſhing them, with great propriety, from thoſe which have proved beneficial, and are both natural and rational. This is a very curious portion of his lectures, and muſt have been as highly gratifying to his auditors as it will be to his readers, for it comprifes an account of the method adopted by the Orientals to prolong life. Of the means reſorted to by the Egyptians. Of the more natural and effectual employed by the Greeks, under which head the great advantage of gymnaſtic exerciſes is conſidered. The introduction of the tincture of gold, and the productions of alchemy, are reprobated.—The following impudent impoſtors are held up to ridicule, viz. Theophraſtus Paracelſus, who died, whilſt, as he boaſted, he had in his poſſeſſion "the ſtone of immortality." The profeſſors of aſtrology, who called in the aid of the world of ſpirits to contribute to the prolongation of human life; and who, provided they could but aſcertain the hour and minute of a perſon's birth, confidently took upon themſelves to predict the mental capacities, future viciſſitudes of life, diſeaſes, together with the circumſtances, the day and hour of his death. Libavius, the inventor of the *tranſfuſion of the blood*, is the next daring impoſtor on record; his proceſſes deſcribed, and the credulity of his patients expoſed. The *metallic tractors* of the American Dr Perkins. The *animal magnetiſm* of Meſmer. St Germain's tea. D'Ailhoud's powders, with other charlatanic impoſitions, are exploded, and the adventures of their impudent authors related with much good humour. As a contraſt to theſe, the natural and rational means of preſerving health and prolonging life, are deſcribed in the hiſtory of Lewis Cornaro, the celebrated noble Venetian, "who had been a profeſſed epicure and libertine till he entered the fortieth year of his age, when he was ſo far reduced by the cholic, rheumatic pains, fevers, &c. that his phyſicians gave him up, aſſuring him, that he could not ſurvive much longer than two months; yet by a total change of diet and regimen, with the moſt exact adherence to temperance, he attained to his hundredth year." In order to follow his example, or to lead a life ſimilar to it; our attention is directed "to a ſyſtematic view of all objects relative to health in general, and to food and drink in particular. Dietetics, ſays our author, comprife the doctrine of health, and include the whole of what the ancients underſtood by the ſingular name of the *ſex non-naturals*, viz.

viz. air, aliment, exercife, and reft; *the paffions and affections of the mind*; *wakefulnefs and fleep*; *repletion and evacuation*. In each of thefe particulars we are liable to commit errors; to prevent which, we have ample difcuffions feparately given in diftinct chapters, from many of which we take the liberty to felect fome ftriking obfervations, calculated to induce a perufal of the whole.

Every intelligent perfon will readily admit the influence of air and weather on the human body; confequently, as they value the prefervation of their health, they will eftimate the rules laid down in chapter 2. for improving the former, and diminifhing the pernicious effects of the latter.

"Aromatics of every kind taint the air, and are very hurtful, introducing into the human body particles foreign to its nature. Mufk is particularly pointed out. Dwelling in the vicinity of lakes, fens, and marfhes, renders the inhabitants fubject to intermittent fevers or agues. Too fudden a tranfition from warm to cold air, or the reverfe, is pernicious. The fitting room in houfes ought, if poffible, to be above the ground floor; but above all things, the windows and doors of fitting and bed rooms, when it can be done conveniently, ought to be left open for a certain fpace of time every day: during the vernal and autumnal months, however, care muft be taken not to open them early in the morning, or late in the evening, or during a fog. It is not fafe (and has fometimes proved fatal) to leave the windows of a bed-chamber open at night, though too frequently done, on account of hot weather, during the fummer months, as there is no fmall hazard of checking perfpiration by the cool night air, the fufceptibility of the pores being then very much increafed by the heat of the day, and the warmth of the beds. As foul linen readily imbibes the perfpirable matter of the fkin, it fhould never be fuffered to remain any time in a bed-room; neither, if it be poffible to avoid it, fhould we fit through the day in the room in which we have flept.

"With refpect to the proper time for heating rooms in autumn, it has been fuppofed, that early fires are unwholefome, and productive of catarrhs. This is certainly ill founded; for in warming a room, as well as in clothing our bodies, we fhould not fo much be regulated by the particular time of the year as the ftate of the weather, and the degrees of heat and cold; in attending to this circumftance we cannot eafily miftake. If, in the temperate days of autumn, the room fhould feel colder than the external air, it is time to make a moderate fire: in damp and cold weather, even in fummer, this is a ufeful precaution. Thofe who, from caprice, parfimony, or prejudice, would rather fhiver on fome weeks longer than confult their fenfations, often feel the confequence of a violent cold." Thefe are a few of the many excellent admonitions refpecting air and weather.

Cleanlinefs, and its various modifications, fo far as it is immediately connected with health, is the fubject of chapter 3. and a very copious one it is; including a powerful recommendation of the ufe of baths, more efpecially the tepid bath, in preference to the cold bath; and as we are not a little furprifed to find a fhort account of "The aerial or air bath, a late invention, the effects of which have not yet been fufficiently afcertained." However, we are informed that the late Lord Monboddo, till within a few years of his death, which happened in the ninetieth year of his age, accuftomed himfelf to take violent exercife, when quite undreffed, in the open air. Upon which our author remarks, "that with the whole body naked, we have much lefs to apprehend from the effects of cold, than by expofing or keeping one part of it lefs covered than another.

To the fair fex, and to our *trouſer-knee'd* and *muſlin collared* young gentlemen, we recommend the neceffary alterations and emendations preferibed in the next chapter—*on Dreſs*. A more general fubject occupies chapter 5. viz. the quantity and quality of our food and drink, the proportion to each other, and proper time of taking them; with a claffification of the moft ufual alimentary fubftances, according to their individual effect on health. On thefe eſſential articles, our author has taken uncommon pains, and given the moft ample, as well as the moft fatisfactory directions. For the benefit of the poor, and the lower claffes of the people, who are moft liable to fuffer

in their health from impure water, we borrow the following remark and prescription.

"As the health of man principally depends on the purity and salubrity of the water he uses, we ought, where necessary, to deprive it of its pernicious qualities; and this can be done by boiling, filtering, and most effectually by distilling. The putrid substances in water may be corrected by the addition of an acid. Thus, half an ounce of alum, in powder, will make twelve gallons of corrupted water pure and transparent, in two hours, without imparting a sensible degree of astringency." The rules for detecting adulterated wines will be found particularly useful to those who are in the habit of purchasing or of consuming considerable quantities. The great question that has occupied the pens of medical and other writers of eminence, respecting the daily use of tea, is fully discussed in this division of our author's lectures, and the constant regular use of it twice in every day, or even once, is declared to be pernicious to every constitution.

An important chapter on the *affections* and *passions* of the mind, and their relative good and bad effects on health. Another on the different organs of sense and their respective functions; and a third, containing practical remarks and rules relative to the treatment and preservation of the eyes: are the remaining subjects of this work; which concludes with a brief recapitulation, and a postscript, the principal intention of which is, the insertion of a few necessary queries, which ought to be distinctly answered by individuals who consult a physician, whether personally or by letter. A copious index is annexed.

Travels through Upper and Lower Egypt, undertaken by Order of the Antient Government, and containing a Variety of Miscellaneous Observations. By C. S. Sonnini, formerly an Officer of Engineers in the French Navy, and a Member of several Scientific and Literary Societies. With a Collection of 40 Plates, from Designs taken on the Spot, under the Inspection of the Author. *Translated by Henry Hunter, D. D.* 8vo. 3 Vols. and 4to Vol. of Plates.

THOUGH the French expedition into Egypt appears now to be totally defeated, yet important consequences may be expected from that attempt. The residence of an European army in that country, for so long a time, among which were a number of men eminent for polished manners and extensive learning; and who were powerfully impelled by the spirit of liberty, or the love of innovation, to effect as great a change as their opportunities would admit in the habits and principles of the people; must have been operative on a nation, of which the civilization was but just sufficient to create a susceptibility of improvement. Such a work as that which is now before us cannot fail to be interesting; particularly when we are given to understand, that the reports of M. Sonini had a considerable influence in forming the romantic expedition of the enterprizing Buonaparte.

The author of these volumes, impressed with this truth, has brought forward, at a juncture thus favourable, his quota of information, and added it to the common stock. We have not here indeed the fruit of very recent labours; for the travails of M. Sonini were performed in 1778; but we have the observations of an ingenious and cultivated mind, on a country at all times interesting, from the high rank which it once held in the history of the world; a country too, which has been precluded, by the habits and reclusiveness of its people, from the possibility of frequent or rapid changes in morals or in manners; and on which, therefore, observations of even twenty years' date cannot be obsolete.

M. Sonini undertook this journey beneath the auspices of the old French government. His principles and sentiments, as far as they appear in this work, are perfectly and enthusiastically republican. He is also as free from superstitious adherence to any theological creed, and from attachment to a throne.—Were we to declare an opinion on the subject, we should class him among those '*strong spirits*' of the present day, who look with equal indifference on all systems of religious faith.—Yet, whatever may be the political or religious opinions of the writer, we are convinced that the reader of these volumes will find him a cheerful and entertaining companion, if not

a very profound and philoſophic inſtructor.

His firſt volume brings the reader and him acquainted in an eaſy and agreeable tour through Genoa, Sicily, Malta, &c. which he viſited in his way from Toulon to Alexandria.

From Malta, the writer paſſed to the iſle of Candia, and thence to Alexandria. His obſervations on the former he reſerves for his Travels through Greece, with which he promiſes ſhortly to oblige the public.

After having deſcribed the dangers of navigation on the coaſt of Egypt, and particularly in approaching Alexandria, the author gives an account of that city in its modern ſtate. The following extracts contain the moſt intereſting of the particulars:

"The new city, or rather the town of Alexandria, is built, the greateſt part of it at leaſt, on the brink of the ſea. Its houſes, like all thoſe of the Levant, have flat terrace roofs: they have no windows, and the apertures which ſupply their places are almoſt entirely obſtructed by a wooden lattice projecting, of various forms, and ſo cloſe, that the light can hardly force a paſſage. In thoſe countries, more than any where elſe, ſuch inventions, which transform a manſion into a priſon, are real *jalouſies* (jealouſies, window-blinds.) It is through this grate of iron or wood, ſometimes of elegant conſtruction, that beauty is permitted to ſee what is paſſing without, but eternally deprived of the privilege of being ſeen; it is in this ſtate of hopeleſs ſeclusion that, far from receiving the homage which nature demands to be paid to it by every being poſſeſſed of ſenſibility, it meets only contempt and outrage; it is there, in a word, that one part of the human race, abuſing the odious right of the more powerful, retains in degrading ſervitude the other part, whoſe charms alone ought to have had the power to ſoften both the ruggedneſs of the ſoil and the ferocity of the tyrants.

Narrow and ſuperciliouſly diſpoſed ſtreets are without pavement as without police; no public edifice, no private building ſtrikes the eye of the traveller, and, on the ſuppoſition that the fragments of the old city had not attracted his attention, he would find no object in the preſent one that could ſupply matter for a moment's thought. Turks, Arabians, Barbareſques, Copts, Chriſtians of Syria, Jews, conſtituted a population which may be eſtimated at five thouſand, as far as an eſtimation can be made in a country where there is no regiſter kept of any thing. Commerce attracts thither beſides, from all the countries of the eaſt, ſtrangers whoſe reſidence is extremely tranſient. This motely aſſemblage of the men of different nations, jealous of, and almoſt always hoſtile to each other, would preſent to the eye of the obſerver a ſingular mixture of cuſtoms, manners, and dreſs, if a reſort of thieves and robbers could repay the trouble of obſervation."—

"If there be altars dedicated to the demon of Revenge, in Egypt undoubtedly are the temples that contain them: there ſhe is the goddeſs, or rather the tyrant of the human heart. Not only the generality of the men, whoſe combination conſtituted the maſs of the inhabitants, never forgive, but however ſignal the reparation made, they never reſt ſatisfied till they have themſelves dipped their hands in the blood of the perſon whom they have declared to be their enemy. Though they ſmother reſentment long, and diſſemble till they find a favourable opportunity to glut it, the effects are not the leſs terrible: they are not for that more conformable to the principles of reaſon. If a European, or, to uſe their term, a *Franc*, has provoked their animoſity, they let it fall without diſcrimination on the head of a European, without troubling themſelves to enquire whether the party were the relation, the friend, or even the compatriot of the perſon from whom they received the offence: thus they purge their reſentment of the only pretext which could plead its excuſe, and their vengeance is downright atrocity."—

"The Arabic is the language generally ſpoken at Alexandria, as well as all over Egypt. But moſt of the Alexandrians, thoſe in particular whom commercial intercourſe brings into contact with the merchants of Europe, ſpeak likewiſe the Italian, adopted in the ports of the Levant. The *morlaco* or *lingua franca* is likewiſe ſpoken there; it is a compound of bad Italian, Spaniſh and Arabic. A ſtranger could, more eaſily than any where elſe, provide himſelf with domeſtics, who, if they

were

were not of approved fidelity, had at leaſt the facility of making themſelves underſtood by perſons not well verſed in the Arabic. A *Serdar*, an officer of no great conſideration, had the command there, and his power did not always extend ſo far as to overawe an ungovernable populace.

"A wide extent of ſand and duſt, an accumulation of rubbiſh, was an abode worthy of the colony of Alexandria, and every day they were labouring hard to increaſe the horror of it. Columns ſubverted and ſcattered about; a few others ſtill upright, but iſolated; mutilated ſtatues, capitals, entablatures, fragments of every ſpecies overſpread the ground with which it is ſurrounded. It is impoſſible to advance a ſtep, without kicking, if I may uſe the expreſſion, againſt ſome of theſe wrecks. It is the hideous theatre of deſtruction the moſt horrible. The ſoul is ſaddened, on contemplating thoſe remains of grandeur and magnificence, and is roused into indignation againſt the barbarians who dared to apply a ſacrilegious hand to monuments which time, the moſt pitileſs of devourers, would have reſpected."

Of the antiquities of the neighbourhood of this city, the Needles of Cleopatra, Pompey's Pillar, &c. the reader will here find a deſcription; and he will perhaps be diverted with the ſanguine hope of the Frenchman, that Pompey's Pillar, ſince diſtinguiſhed by having been the head-quarters of Buonaparte, and by having the French who fell in the attack of Alexandria buried round its baſe, will be called by poſterity *the Column of the French!* He even ſuggeſts the practicability of tranſporting the pillar itſelf to the *Place de la Revolution* in Paris; where, with a colloſſal ſtatue of liberty on its capital, it could not fail to produce a moſt majeſtic effect.

The vaulted ciſterns of Alexandria, ſo immenſe as to have ſupported the whole extent of the antient town, and which are acknowledged to have been among the proudeſt monuments of former greatneſs, our author was not ſo fortunate as to ſee. We find, however, a deſcription of the canal which receives the waters of the Nile at Fouah, and conveys them about forty miles to Alexandria;—and which the indolence of the Alexandrians is ſuffering daily to fall to ruin, though the exiſtence of their city depends on its preſervation. The Catacombs furniſh another intereſting topic; as do alſo the Cameleon, and the Jackall, which ventures to ſeek its prey even in the ſtreets of Alexandria.

From Alexandria to Roſetta, the traveller paſſes, if not a deſert, at leaſt a tract which differs from a deſert only by a few houſes built at great diſtances and a ſmall village ſeen from the road. Near Roſetta, the ſcene changes as if by enchantment, and almoſt inſtantly, inſtead of miſerable ruins, and plains of hideous ſterility, the delighted paſſenger is charmed by a view of nature cloathed in her richeſt dreſs, and wantoning in gay profuſion. Roſetta itſelf, compared with Alexandria, is as delightful as its charming environs. In depicting this ſcene, the author ſeems deeply to have felt its beauty; and his deſcription will be read with pleaſure: but we conceive that our readers will be ſtill more gratified by the account which he gives of the cuſtoms and manners of the inhabitants of Roſetta.

"The moſt ordinary paſtime here, as well as all over Turkey, is to ſmoke and drink coffee. The pipe is never from the mouth from morning to night: at home, in the houſes of others, in the ſtreets, on horſeback, the lighted pipe is ſtill in hand, and the tobacco-pouch hangs always at the girdle. Theſe conſtitute two great objects of luxury; the purſes which ſerve to contain the proviſion, are of ſilken ſtuff richly embroidered, and the tubes of the pipes, of an exceſſive length, are of the rareſt, and, for the moſt part, of the ſweeteſt ſcented wood. I brought home one made of the jaſmine tree, which is more than ſix feet long: it may convey an idea of the beauty of the jaſmines of thoſe countries, ſeeing they puſh out branches of that length, ſtraight, and ſufficiently large to admit of being bored. The pipes of more common wood are covered with a robe of ſilk tied with threads of gold. The poor, with whom the ſmoke of tobacco is a neceſſary of firſt rate importance, make uſe of ſimple tubes of reed. The top of the pipe is garniſhed with a ſpecies of mock alabaſter, and white as milk: it is frequently enriched with precious ſtones. Among perſons leſs opulent, the

the place of this is fupplied by faucets. What goes into the mouth is a morfel of yellow amber, the mild and fweet favour of which, when it is heated or lightly preffed, contributes toward correcting the pungent flavour of the tobacco. To the other extremity of thofe tubes are adapted very handfome cups of baked clay, and which are commonly denominated the *nuts of the pipes*. Some of them are marbled with various colours, and plated over with gold leaf. You find them of various fizes: thofe in moft general ufe through Egypt are more capacious; they are, at the fame time, of greater diftention. Almoft all of them are imported from Turkey, and the reddifh clay of which they are formed is found in the environs of Conftantinople.

"It is difficult for Frenchmen, efpecially for thofe who are not in the habit of fcorching their mouth with our fhort pipes and ftrong tobacco, to conceive the poffibility of fmoking all day long. Firft, the Turkifh tobacco is the beft and the mildeft in the world; it has nothing of that fharpnefs which, in European countries, provokes a continual difpofition to fpit; next, the length of the tube into which the fmoke afcends, the odoriferous quality of the wood of which it is made, the amber tip which goes into the mouth, the wool of aloes with which the tobacco is perfumed, contribute more towards its mildnefs, and to render the fmoke of it totally inoffenfive in their apartments. The beautiful women, accordingly, take pleafure in amufing their vacant time, by preffing the amber with their rofy lips, and in gently refpiring the fumes of the tobacco of Syria, embalmed with thofe of aloes. It is not neceffary, befides, to draw up the fmoke with a ftrong fuction; it afcends moft fpontaneoufly. They put the pipe afide, they chat, they look about, from time to time they apply it to the lips, and gently inhale the fmoke, which immediately makes its efcape from the half-opened mouth. Sometimes they amufe themfelves by fending it through the nofe: at other times times they take a full mouthfull, and artfully blow it out on the extended palm, where it forms a fpiral column, which it takes a few inftants to evaporate. The glands are not pricked, and the throat and breaft are not parched by an inceffant difcharge of faliva, with which the floors of our fmokers are inundated. They feel no inclination to fpit, and that affection, fo cuftomary with us, is, in the Eaft, confidered as a piece of indecency in the prefence of perfons entitled to fuperior refpect: it is, in like manner, looked upon as highly unpolite to wipe the nofe while they are by.

"The Orientalifts, who are not under the neceffity of labouring, remain almoft always in a fitting poflure, with their legs croffed under them; they never walk, unlefs they are obliged to do fo; and do not ftir from one place to another, without a particular object to put them in motion. If they have an inclination to enjoy the coolnefs of an orchard, or the purling of a ftream, the moment they reach their mark they fit down. They have no idea of taking a walk, except on horfeback, for they are very fond of this exercife. It is a great curiofity to obferve their looks, as they contemplate an European walking backward and forward, in his chamber, or in the open air, retreading continually the felf-fame fteps which he had trodden before. It is impoffible for them to comprehend the meaning of that going and coming, without any apparent object, and which they conider as an act of folly. The more fenfible among them conceive it to be a preferiptiion of our phyficians that fets us a-walking about in this manner, in order to take an exercife neceffary to the cure of fome diforder. The negroes, in Africa, have a fimilar idea of this practice, and I have feen the favages of South America laugh at it heartily among themfelves. It is peculiar to thinking men; and this agitation of the body participates of that of the mind, as a kind of relief to its extreme tenfion. Hence it comes to pafs that all thofe nations, whofe head is empty, whofe ideas are contracted, whofe mind is neither employed, nor fufceptible of meditation, have no need of fuch a relaxation, of fuch a diverfion of thought; with them, immobility of body is a fymptom of the inert ftate of the brain.

"Thofe who are oppreffed by want of employment, and this is the heritage of the rich, retire to the gardens, of which I have prefented a fketch, and, evermore feated, delight themfelves with

with breathing a cool and balſamic air, or in liſtening to wretched muſic. If they do not chuſe to go out of town, they repair to one of the coffee-houſes, of which we ſhould form a very erroneous idea, in judging of them by our own. It is a mere tobacco ſmoking rendezvous, totally deſtitute of decoration, and in which nothing abſolutely is to be found, except coffee and a live coal to light the pipes. Mats are ſpread for the company, and theſe places of reſort are frequented by the men of all nations who reſide in Egypt. There is nothing that deſerves the name of converſation: a few words only drop occaſionally. The Turk is cold and taciturn; he looks down on every other nation with diſdain. The African is leſs diſpoſed to ſilence, but likes to follow the example of the Turk, and thoſe who are not Muſſulmans, take no pains to ſhun the appearance of a ſervile ſubjection to the taſte of their tyrants. With the pipe in one hand, and the cup of coffee in the other, they ſlowly waſh down every four or five whiffs of tobacco, with a gulp of coffee. Dancing girls, buffoons, extempore declaimers, come to tender their ſervices, and to earn a bit of money. There is ſcarcely one of thoſe haunts but what attracts to it ſome ſtory teller by profeſſion, who is never tired with talking, nor his auditors of liſtening to him. The narrations of theſe indefatigable orators are, for the moſt part, very inſipid and tireſome. The Arabian writers, however, from whom their ſtories are borrowed, ſometimes furniſh them with ſome that are excellent."

In the remaining part of this firſt volume, the reader will find much curious matter relative to the vices of the male ſex in Egypt, and the ſufferings, the ſeclusion, the amours, and the cosmetics, of the females. For this detail, which is in part diſguſting and indelicate, though conveyed in language as decent as could be employed; for an account of Aboukir, (celebrated by the ſplendid victory of Nelſon,) and the ruins of Canope; and for various particulars in natural hiſtory; we muſt refer to the work.

(*To be continued.*)

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" From lines drawn true, our eye may trace
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" That gars my fleſh a' creep yet wi' the fright." *Gentle Shepherd.*

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Herald the Valiant lived about the Eleventh Century. He was the moſt renowned warrior of his time. He complains in this Ode, that the glory he had acquired by ſo many exploits had not been able to make any impreſſion on Eliſſif, or Elizabeth, the daughter of Jariſlas, King of Ruſſia. It is characteriſtic of that gallantry which gave birth to the age of Chivalry.

MY ſhips in gallant trim and ſplendid,
Made the long Sicilian tour;
My veſſel brown with ſtorms contended,
Midſt the raging waves ſecure.
Warlike proweſs ſtill adorns me,
Yet a Ruſſian maiden ſcorns me.

In my youth I fought at Drontheim,
There the troops outnumber'd ours;
Dead upon the field, King Lonlein
Fell 'midſt iron-fleeted ſhowers.
Warlike proweſs ſtill adorns me,
Yet a Ruſſian maiden ſcorns me.

Once our bark in unknown ocean.
Felt the whirling ſurges riſe,
Yet we ſtay'd her beating motion,
Hope and valour ſtrength ſupplies.
Warlike proweſs ſtill adorns me,
Yet a Ruſſian maiden ſcorns me.

I perform eight feats of glory,
Great in fight, on horſeback firm,
None in ſkaiting are before me,
From my bow the arrows burn.
Warlike proweſs ſtill adorn me,
Yet a Ruſſian maiden ſcorns me.

Will ſhe own, the lovely maiden,
Near a ſouthern city plac'd,
I return'd with trophies laden,
And my deeds in ſlaughter trac'd.

War-

Warlike proweſs ſtill adorns me,
Yet a Ruſſian maiden ſcorns me.

Rugged Norway's country bore me,
Where the hills are clad in ſnow,
Where the infant, and the hoary
Peaſants, twang the ſounding bow.
I preferr'd my veſſel's guiding,
'Midſt the rocks and ragged ſhores,
Far from human dwelling riding,
Where the foaming ocean roars.
Warlike proweſs ſtill adorns me,
Yet a Ruſſian maiden ſcorns me.

AURELIA AND THE SPIDER.

THE muſlin torn, from tears of grief
In vain Aurelia ſought relief;
In ſighs and plaints ſhe paſs'd the day,
The tatter'd ſtock neglected lay;
While buſied at the weaving trade,
A Spider heard the ſighing maid,
And kind'y ſtopping in a trice,
Thus offered (gratis) her advice:
"Turn little Girl! behold in me
A ſtimulus to induſtry;
Compare your woes, my dear, with mine,
Then tell me who ſhould moſt repine:
This morning, ere you'd left your room,
The chambermaid's remorſeleſs broom
In one ſad moment that deſtroy'd,
To build which thouſands were employ'd!
The ſhock was great; but as my life
I riſk'd in the relentleſs ſtrife,
I knew lamenting was in vain,
So ſmiling went to work again.
By conſtant work, a day or more
My little manſion did reſtore:
And ev'ry tear that you have ſhed
Had been a needle-full of thread;
Ev'ry ſigh of ſad deſpair
Had been a ſtitch with proper care;
Quick would have been the buckle's rent,
Nor thus the day have been miſpent."

THE FATE OF FRANCE.

IMITATED FROM HORACE.

Book I. Ode XV.

"*Pater cum traheret.*" &c.

WHEN Gallia's haughty rulers ſent
The leader of their rebel hoſt,
New plagues (in Freedom's garb) to vent
On Egypt's defolated coaſt:
Old Neptune from his oozy bed
Rear'd high his ſtorm diſperſing head,
And, thus, in accents clear and ſtrong,
To Gallia's future fate he rais'd the ſacred ſong:

"Forbear! forbear! ill-fated France,
To ſend forth you devoted crew:
Where'er your tim'rous fleets advance,
England's are eager to purſue.
And lo! ſhe track's th'intended guile
Ev'n to the ſhores of diſtant Nile:
They meet—I ſee the midnight flame—
Glory and pride to her, to thee defeat and ſhame!

Alas! what toils thy ills to crown,
Futurity's dark ſhades conceal!
Crimes that ſhall draw due vengeance down
From heav'n, Fate haſtens to reveal.
Two mighty Emperors draw the ſword—
Whole nations to their God reſtor'd
Bleſs the firm phalanx, join the band,
And fear and civil diſcord madden round thy land.

In vain on Fortune's airy car,
Awhile upborne, thy ſtreamer's fly;
The youth ruſh eager to the war,
And idly impious threat the ſky.
In vain, for ſoon thy bands ſhall feel—
Again the peaſant, gayly free,
Shall ſport beneath thy ſhades delightful Italy!

See'ſt thou not Charles of royal race?
Suworow hardy Ruſſia's boaſt?
Whoſe vet'ran brows freſh laurels grace,
Which thrive beneath his age's froſt.
His hands thy fated land o'erwhelm,
While riding on my ſpacious realm,
Thee ſcorning, and thy ſubject Spain,
Britannia ſoars aloft the Empreſs of the Main.

Though Pruſſia's wavering ſubtlety
Awhile may ſeem to prop thy State,
Nought ſhall avert the fix'd decree,
And ſhield thee from the ſhafts of Fate.
Ev'n now fell Diſcord bends thee low;
Confederate Europe ſpeeds the blow;
To prove that France, in ruin hurl'd,
Can, only by her fall, give Freedom to the World.

THE ROSE.

By SOPHIA KING.

BENEATH the ſun's refulgent ray,
A lovely Roſe tree bloom'd;
The glittering dewdrops on it lay,
Its ſweets the air perfum'd.

Among the buds was ſeen a Roſe,
More ſtately than the reſt,
Protected by the thorny boughs,
Where Zephyr fann'd her breaſt.

When, lo! an envious worm eſpied
The modeſt blooming flower:
Unſeen, upon the ſtalk it climb'd,
In a ſad, luckleſs hour.

The ſinny foe the branches hide
Secure; it ſtings the inmoſt heart,
Corrodes each beauty in its pride,
And feſters like a poiſon'd dart.

Quick fade the blighted flower's leaves;
The inſect triumph'd in its pain;
The wither'd Roſe in ſecret grieves,
Unconſcious of its bane.

And now the victim flower droops
And penſive hides amid the boughs;
The ſapleſs ſtalk now lowly ſtoops,
And weeps in dew drops to each roſe;

Now ſilent mourns its ruin'd charms,
And writhes in anguiſh to and fro;
Sinks in the briers thorny arms,
With the dumb energy of woe.

How many mortals, like the blighted Roſe,
Sink to the grave, ſhot by a hidden dart;
To their heart's care a ſecret venom flows,
For many a baneful worm corrodes their heart.

And many worms within this world we meet,
Who ſee with envious eyes each other's joy;
Who feed on gall to canker every ſweet,
And ſtrive each mortal's pleaſure to annoy.

CONTENT.

HAPPY the man, whoſe frugal mind
To Nature's claims alone confin'd;
Nor hopes elate, nor fears depreſs,
The breaſt contentment deigns to bleſs.

He knows not joy who knows not this—
Content is true ſubſtantial bliſs;
No inward peace his boſom knows,
Who covets more than Heav'n beſtows.

Beware Ambition's ſubtle flame!
Oh! fly from Envy's baneful name!
Theſe raiſe the ſoul's moſt deadly ſtorms,
And promiſe what Content performs.

Unbleſt ſhall paſs that wretch's life,
Who takes not ſweet Content to wife;
Whilſt he who bleſt beneath her ſway,
Shall ſmile the pangs of Death away.

LINES BY A SCOTTISH POET.

HAD I a cave on ſome wild diſtant ſhore,
Where the winds howl to the waves daſhing roar,
There would I weep my woes,
There ſeek my loſt repoſe,
Till grief my eyes ſhould cloſe
Ne'er to wake more.

Falſeſt of womankind, canſt thou declare,
All thy fond plighted vows, fleeting as air?
To thy new lover hie,
Laugh o'er thy perjury,
Then in thy boſom try
What peace is there.

STATE PAPER.

Copy of a DECLARATION *made by his Majeſty the Emperor of the Ruſſias, to the Members of the Germanic Empire.*

"His Imperial Majeſty, the Emperor of all the Ruſſias, ever animated with zeal for the cauſe of Sovereigns, and wiſhing to put a ſtop to the ravages and diſorders which have been ſpread by the impious government under which France groans, to the remoteſt countries—being fully determined to diſpatch his ſea and land forces for the ſupport of ſufferers, and to reſtore royalty in France, without, however, admitting any partition of that country; to re-eſtabliſh the ancient forms of Government in the United Netherlands and in the Swiſs cantons; to maintain the integrity of the Germanic Empire, and to look for his reward in the happineſs and tranquillity of Europe. Providence has bleſſed his arms, and hitherto the Ruſſian troops have triumphed over the enemies of thrones, religion, and ſocial order.

"His Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias having thus declared his views, and the motives by which he is guided, addreſſes this declaration to all the members of the German Empire, inviting them to unite their forces with his to deſtroy their common enemy as ſpeedily as poſſible, to found on his ruins permanent tranquillity for themſelves and their poſterity.

"Should his Imperial Majeſty of all the Ruſſias perceive that they ſupport his views, and rally under him, he will, inſtead of relaxing his zeal, redouble his exertions, and not ſheath his ſword before he has ſeen the downfall of the monſter which threatens to cruſh all legal authorities. But ſhould he be left to himſelf, he will be forced to recall his forces to his own ſtates, and to give up a cauſe ſo badly ſupported by thoſe who ought to have the greateſt ſhare in its triumph.
Gatchina, Sept. 15. (old ſtyle), 1799."

BRITISH PARLIAMENT.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

(*Continued from p. 700.*)

Oct. 2. *Lord Grenville*, after ſhortly expatiating on the meritorious and gallant conduct of the commanding officers and the army, which made ſo ſucceſsful a landing in Holland, moved the thanks of the Houſe to Lieutenant-General Sir Ralph Abercromby, K. B. and to Major-Generals D'Oyley, Coote, Burrard, and Moore, for their very gallant and meritorious conduct in effecting a landing on the coaſt of Holland in the face of a powerful enemy, ſecuring the principal port and arſenal of the Dutch republic, and facilitating the capture of their fleet, &c. which being read were voted *nem. diſſ.* And alſo the thanks of the Houſe to the non-commiſſioned officers and ſoldiers.

Lord Spencer then called their Lordſhips' attention to the gallant and very meritorious conduct of Vice-Admiral Mitchell, and to the different officers and men on board the fleet under his command, in ſo effectually co-operating with the military in effecting a landing upon the enemy's coaſt, and afterward ſo gloriouſly following it up by the complete capture of the Dutch marine, a force of incalculable importance. After dwelling ſhortly on theſe points, his Lordſhip moved the thanks of the Houſe to Vice-Admiral Mitchell, the different captains, and alſo the ſeamen and marines on board the fleet under his command, for their diſtinguiſhed gallant conduct in co-operating with the military, &c. on which the queſtions being put, they were voted unanimouſly by the Houſe. Lord Spencer, ſpeaking warmly in praiſe of the unexampled bravery and enterpriſing ſpirit of Sir Sydney Smith, alſo moved the thanks of the Houſe to that commander, and to the officers and crews of the ſhips under his command.

Lords Hood and *Grenville* ſpoke in the warmeſt terms of approbation of the conduct of Sir Sydney in the affair in queſtion, and of his general character as an officer.

The vote of thanks then paſſed *nem. diſſ.*

4. *Lord Grenville*, purſuant to the notice he had given, roſe to move the thanks of the Houſe to Lord Mornington, for the wiſdom, energy, and ſuperior policy of his conduct as Governor-General of India, on the occaſion of the late eventual war in that country. In prefacing this motion, he addreſſed the Houſe at conſiderable length, taking a review of the whole operations of the government of India, civil, as well as military, from the arrival of Lord Mornington, until the happy termination of the war, by the capture of Seringapatam (in which he made frequent references to India papers before the Houſe). Throughout the whole, his Lordſhip adduced the wiſdom, energy, and refined policy diſplayed by the governor-general, who, he obſerved, in his plans and meaſures, was moſt ably and ſucceſsfully ſeconded by Lord Clive, governor of Madras, and Governor Duncan, of Bombay. He thought theſe perſonages alſo worthy of the honour of their Lordſhips' thanks, as well as the generals and officers who commanded the Britiſh forces in the operations againſt the Myſore. His Lordſhip concluded by moving the thanks of the Houſe to the Right Honourable Richard Earl of Mornington, for the wiſdom, energy, and deciſion diſplayed throughout the whole of his arduous duty, as governor-general of India, from the time of his arrival in that country until the glorious termination of the war, &c. Alſo to Edward Clive, and John Duncan, Eſq; governors of the ſettlements of Madras and Bombay, for their very meritorious conduct in co-operating with the governor-general, &c. And to Lieutenant-General Harris, to Major-Generals Stuart, Hartley, and Beard, and the officers under their command, for the very great zeal, ſpirit, and bravery, manifeſted by them in the operations of the war againſt Tippoo Sultan, &c. And laſtly, the non-commiſſioned officers and privates of the Indian army.

The queſtions being ſeverally put on theſe motions, they were unanimouſly voted by the Houſe, and the Lord Chancellor was ordered to communicate the ſame to governor-general the Earl of Mornington.

12. The Royal aſſent was given by commiſſion to ſeveral bills, after which, the Houſe adjourned till the 21ſt of January next.

HOUSE

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Oct. 2. On the order of the day being read for the third reading of the militia volunteer bill, Mr Tierney objected to that part of the preamble which mentioned, "until the lawful government of Holland was eſtabliſhed." He ſaid that he could not conceive how parliament was competent to decide what was, or what was not the legal government of Holland.

Mr Dundas ſaid, the legal government of Holland was the ſtadtholderian government, which we recognized and guaranteed in all our treaties with Holland.

Mr Tierney explained. The queſtion was then put and agreed to, and the bill was read a third time.

5. *Mr Dundas* roſe, and ſaid he would not uſe many words to enforce what he had to offer, as he was convinced of the unanimous concurrence of the Houſe and of the nation. He was aſſured he was not ſingular in his feelings, when he wiſhed that ſome teſtimonial of eſteem and public regard ſhould be beſtowed on the memory of the deceaſed Earl Howe. With reſpect to that gallant officer, he had been elevated to a ſeat in another houſe by his Sovereign, for the gallant ſervices rendered his country. He had, he was happy to ſay, made an ample proviſion for his reſpectable family, which did not ſtand in need of the public munificence. It only remained with the country, therefore, to preſerve to poſterity, by a monument erected to his memory, the high value it had ſet on his brilliant and diſtinguiſhed ſervices. This was a ſentiment, he ſaid, that muſt prevail in every generous mind; it would remind his country and his family of his brilliant actions; it would perpetuate his naval atchievements, and act as a ſtimulus to others to emulate his virtues and courage. As the colours taken on the firſt of June, were placed in St Paul's, where they had been ſeen by his Majeſty, he would prefer that cathedral to Weſtminſter-abbey. He therefore moved, "That an humble addreſs be preſented to his Majeſty, praying that he be graciouſly pleaſed to direct a monument to be erected in the cathedral of St Paul's, to the memory of Admiral Earl Howe, with a ſuitable inſcription, deſcriptive of his public ſervices during a long life, particularly in the important victory gained over the enemy on the 1ſt of June 1794, aſſuring his Majeſty that the Houſe would make good the expence."

Mr Pitt ſeconded the motion, which was agreed to *nem. con.* and ordered to be preſented to his Majeſty.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer obſerved, that the good effects of the bill to enable his Majeſty to call parliament together, in caſe of prorogation, whenever the ſtate of affairs ſhould require it, had been ſo materially felt, he ſhould think it his duty to bring in a bill to grant his Majeſty a ſimilar power in caſe of adjournment. He therefore moved for leave to bring in a bill for that purpoſe, which was granted.

6. *Mr Dundas* moved the thanks of the Houſe to the Earl of Mornington, Lord Clive, &c. &c. which were unanimouſly agreed to.

9. The order of the day being read for the third reading of the bill to enable his Majeſty to call parliament together within fourteen days, notwithſtanding any adjournment, was read and paſſed.

12. The Houſe was adjourned till the 21ſt of January next.

MONTHLY REGISTER.

GAZETTE INTELLIGENCE.

Downing-Street, Oct. 26.

Lieutenant-Colonel Clinton, Aide de-Camp to his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York, arrived this morning at the Office of the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, with Diſpatches, of which the following are copies.

Head-quarters, Schagenbrug, Oct. 20

SIR,

IN my late communications I have repreſented to you the circumſtances under which I found it expedient to

withdraw the army from its forward position in front of Alkmaar, within that which it at present occupies, and which I trust will have appeared to his Majesty sufficient to warrant the measure.

The season of the year, which has already assumed here the aspect of winter, gave me, from day to day, additional reason to apprehend that any attempt towards a prosecution of the campaign in this country could not be attended with decisive advantages, whilst the impossibility of covering the troops in the narrow district of the country in our possession during the winter, and the precarious state of supplies to be expected in that season, added to the conviction I felt that the most adviseable measure to be pursued, was to remove with the army to England, an operation which, although it might have exposed the army to some loss in the execution, I judged in my mind preferable to any other which could be adopted.

Under this impression, and considering that serious loss might ensue from delay, I have been induced to conclude an armistice, in conjunction with Vice-Admiral Mitchell, with General Brune, commanding the French and Batavian armies, of which the conditions are inclosed, and which, although they provide for delivering up a large number of prisoners of war now in our hands, yet I trust will not be thought by his Majesty an inadequate compensation for many valuable lives which must have been lost, after the object which has hitherto directed them no longer promised success; and when the only means which presented themselves of ensuring a secure retreat, were those of resorting to the destructive measure of inundation from the sea, which, as it would have involved the inhabitants of the northern part of this province in ruin for a series of years, must have been highly repugnant to the feelings, as well as contrary to the character and practice of the British nation.

I rest confident that the motives which I have here detailed will excuse me to his Majesty for having acted without waiting for previous instructions from home, and that I shall have the satisfaction of knowing that my conduct in this respect has met with his Majesty's gracious approbation.——I am, &c. (Signed) FREDERICK.

The Right Hon. Henry Dundas, &c.

Articles agreed upon between Major-General Knox, duly authorised by his Royal Highness the Duke of York, Commander in Chief of the combined English and Russian army, and citizen Rostollan, General of Brigade and Adjutant-General, duly authorised by Citizen Brune, General and Commander in Chief of the French and Batavian army.

Art. I. From the date of this convention all hostilities shall cease between the two armies.

II. The line of demarcation between the said armies shall be the line of their respective outposts as they now exist.

III. The continuation of all works offensive and defensive shall be suspended on both sides, and no new ones shall be undertaken.

IV. The mounted batteries taken possession of at the Helder, or at other positions within the line now occupied by the combined English and Russian army, shall be restored in the state in which they were taken, or (in case of improvement) in their present state, and all the Dutch artillery taken therein shall be preserved.

V. The combined English and Russian army shall embark as soon as possible, and shall evacuate the territory, coasts, islands, and internal navigation of the Dutch Republic, by the 30th of November 1799, without any devastation, by inundations, cutting the dykes, or otherwise injuring the sources of navigation.

VI. Any ships of war or other vessels which may arrive with reinforcements for the combined English and Russian army, shall not land the same, and shall be sent away as soon as possible.

VII. General Brune shall be at liberty to send an officer within the lines of the Zuyp and to the Helder, to report to him the state of the batteries and the progress of the embarkation. His Royal Highness the Duke of York shall be equally at liberty to send an Officer within the French and Batavian lines, to satisfy himself that no new works are carried on on their side. An Officer of rank and distinction shall be sent from

from each army to guarrantee the execution of this convention.

VIII. Eight thousand prisoners of war, French and Batavians, taken before the commencement of the present campaign, and now detained in England, shall be restored without conditions to their respective countries. The proportion and the choice of such prisoners for each, to be determined between the two Republics. Major General Knox shall remain with the French army to guarantee the execution of this article.

IX. The cartel agreed upon between the two armies for the exchange of prisoners taken during the present campaign, shall continue in full force till it shall be carried into complete execution; and it is further agreed that the Dutch Admiral De Winter shall be considered as exchanged.

Concluded at Alkmaar, the 18th of October 1799, by the undersigned General Officers, furnished with full powers to this effect.

J. KNOX, Major General.
ROSTOLLAN.

Head-quarters, Schagenbrug, Oct. 20.

SIR,

I transmit to you herewith a return of the killed, wounded, and missing, of his Majesty's forces under my command, between the 6th and 10th instant. I am, &c. FREDERICK.

Right Hon. Henry Dundas, &c.

Head-quarters, Schagenbrug, Oct. 10.

Return of the Killed, Wounded, Missing, and left in Alkmaar.

Total—15 horses killed; 1 lieutenant-colonel; 1 captain, 4 horses wounded; 2 subalterns, 1 staff, 3 serjeants, 25 rank and file, 1 horse missing.

Return of Officers wounded and missing.

18th Light Dragoons—Hon. Lieut.-Colonel Stewart, Captain Hay, wounded: Quarter-Master Mr Kelly missing.

2d Battalion Royals—Lieutenant Lyster missing.

ALEX. HOPE, Deputy Adjutant-General.

Admiralty-Office, Nov. 16.

Copy of a letter from the Right Hon. Lord Nelson, K. B. Rear-Admiral of the Red, and Commanding Officer of his Majesty's ships and vessels in the Mediterrean, to Evan Nepean, Esq; dated Palermo, 1st October.

SIR,

I HAVE desired Commodore Trowbridge to send you, for the information of their Lordships, extracts of all his letters to me, with the terms entered into with the French for the evacuation of the city of Rome and Civita Vecchia; on which event I sincerely congratulate their Lordships, and am, Sir, with great respect, &c.

NELSON.

SIR, *Civita Vecchia, Oct.* 5.

I am to request you will inform their Lordships, that I took possession of Civita Vecchia, Cornetto, and Tolta, on the 29th and 30th ultimo, with 200 marines and seamen of the Culloden and Minotaur, and have already embarked and sent off near 3000 of the enemy; I now wait for transports to get off the remainder which I suppose about 2000 more.

General Bouchard takes possession of Rome at the same time by the same treaty; all public property to be restored: Their Lordships may rely on every exertion on my part to put the capitulation in full force, and trust I shall succeed.—I have the honour to be, &c. T. TROWBRIDGE.

Evan Nepean, Esq.

SIR, *Civita Vecchia, Oct.* 6.

In obedience to orders from Lord Nelson, I have the honour to send you, for their Lordships information, a copy of the articles of capitulation I have made with the French General Garnier, to clear the Roman State. As I knew the French had all the valuables of the Roman State packed up ready for embarking, and the coast at Civita Vecchia forming a deep bay, with hard W. S. W. gales and a heavy sea, which prevented the blokade from being so close as was necessary to prevent the enemy from carrying off those truly valuable articles, I therefore thought it best to grant the liberal terms I have, to get them out of this country, where they have committed every excess possible.

I trust what I have done may meet their Lordships approbation.

I beg to represent to their Lordships that I received every assistance from Captain Louis, who went to Rome and

arranged the evacuation, and taking poſſeſſion of that place, with General Bouchard, with great ability and exertion, and much to my ſatisfaction. I have the honour to be, &c.

T. TROWBRIDGE.

Evan Nepean, Eſq.

Downing Street, Oct. 29.

A diſpatch, of which the following is a copy, has been received from Lieut.-Colonel Henry Clinton, by the Right Hon. Lord Grenville.

MY LORD, *Coire, Oct. 9.*

When I ſent your Lordſhip my laſt diſpatch from Glaris, the report from General Roſenberg, whoſe diviſion compoſed the rear guard, had not reached head-quarters. I have now the honour to inform your Lordſhip, that the enemy, having received a conſiderable reinforcement from Zug, renewed, on the 1ſt inſtant, their attack near the village of Mutten, where, in conſequence of the fatigue the troops had undergone the preceding day, they had been obliged to halt. A ſtrong column of the enemy advanced by the road in the centre of the valley, while two others, ſkirting the foot of the mountains on each ſide, endeavoured to get the rear of the Ruſſians.—The diviſion of General Roſenberg conſiſted of eight weak battalions and two regiments of Coſſacks. Diſcovering the intention of the enemy, he left five battalions as a reſerve, and with three (the breadth of the valley not admitting of a greater front), ſupported by the Coſſacks, he attacked the centre of the enemy; their heavy guns for a moment gave them an advantage; but nothing could withſtand the ſteadineſs of the Ruſſian attack. In the hurry of their retreat, an ammunition waggon was overſet, which choaked the only road by which the cannon could move; three pieces were immediately taken poſſeſſion of by the Ruſſians. The flank columns ſeeing their centre pierced, fled. General Roſenberg profited of the confuſion of the enemy, and purſued them beyond Schwitz. In killed and wounded they loſt above five hundred men and thirteen officers, and one thouſand and twenty men were taken priſoners. The Ruſſians had in this affair about three hundred killed and wounded.

It was the 4th, in the evening, before the ſick and wounded could be tranſported to Glaris; the road not admitting of the paſſage of artillery, the guns were deſtroyed; on the 5th the army marched by the valley of Semſt to Elm; the difficulty of the roads made it impoſſible to remove the wounded. The enemy followed the rear guard, and gained ſome trifling advantages over it during the firſt three or four miles of the march; upon a well-timed attack, however, of the Ruſſians, they deſiſted from any further attempt. On the 6th the army paſſed the Danix mountain, which the ſnow that had fallen during the laſt week had rendered dangerous, and ſeveral mules and baggage horſes were loſt on the march. The army is now aſſembled at this place, and after two days it is the Marſhal's intention to form a junction with the army of General Koſgakow. I have the honour to be, &c.

H. CLINTON.

Right Hon. Lord Grenville, &c.

Downing-Street, Nov. 2.

A diſpatch, of which the following is a copy, has been this day received from Lieutenant-Colonel Ramſay, by the Right Hon. Lord Grenville.

MY LORD, *Stockach, Oct. 15.*

The Ruſſian army under the command of General Korſakof took up a poſition, after its retreat from Zurich, with its right to Eglizaw, and its left to Conſtance. The bridges of Dieſſenhofen and Stein were occupied by it in front, and a garriſon of 2000 men were placed in a Tete de Pont at Buefingen, a village between Dieſſenhofen and Shauff hauſen, where a pontoon bridge had been placed by the Auſtrians. On the 8th, the enemy appeared in force in the neighbourhood of Buefingen. It was evident that he came for the purpoſe of reconnoitring the poſition, and though he retired in the evening there was reaſon to believe he had not retreated far. An immediate attack on the Tete de Pont was expected.

On the morning of the 9th, General Korſakof reſolved to paſs the Rhine for the purpoſe of driving the enemy from their poſition. He took with him ten battalions and twenty-two ſquadrons.

The army advanced for about a league without diſcovering any traces of the enemy. They at laſt, however, found him in conſiderable force, and ſtrongly poſted, with his left to the village

lage of Schlatten, and his right to a wood which he had alſo occupied. It it is impoſſible for words to do juſtice to the intrepidity with which the Ruſſians immediately attacked them. The whole line fell upon them with their bayonets, and the French flew for protection to the woods, where, under cover of the chaſſeurs, they endeavoured to take a ſecond poſition. They were driven from this likewiſe by the Ruſſians, and a third poſition which they took in the neighbourhood of Tublikon, was likely to have proved ſtill more unfortunate to them. Two of their battalions had already thrown down their arms, and were on the point of ſurrendering, when a regiment of French cavalry, followed by a large column of infantry, commanded by Maſſena in perſon, came in view and ſaved them.

The object of the expedition was to drive the enemy from the woods in the neighbourhood of the Tete de Pont, and this object being effected, it became imprudent, with ſo ſmall a corps, to riſk an action with a force now become ſo ſuperior, or to advance further unſupported, againſt the enemy, who, from the neighbourhood of their army, had an opportunity of receiving ſtill greater reinforcements. After driving the enemy nearly to the river Thur, the army retreated by the road on which they had advanced, and entered their camp about ſix o'clock in the evening.

While theſe operations were going on in the neighbourhood of Bueſingen the enemy attacked the bridge of Dieſſenhofen and the town of Conſtance, which confirmed us in the belief that the attack would have taken place on the Tete de Pont, if the offenſive operations on the ſide of the Ruſſians had not prevented it.

At Dieſſenhofen they were repulſed by General Wornoff, who with a very ſmall number of men very gallantly defended himſelf during the whole of the day, and, after occaſioning a very great loſs of men to the French, took ſeveral priſoners and three pieces of cannon.

At Conſtance, where the corps of the Prince of Conde were ſtationed, the enemy were moſt ſucceſsful. The poſition which the Prince was obliged to take up for the defence of the town was vaſtly too extenſive for his ſmall number of men, and being unable to guard all the different points ſufficiently, the enemy, after directing all his efforts unſucceſsfully againſt their front, contrived at laſt to advance a corps unperceived through the vineyards, force the left of the poſition, and enter the town before the reſt of the Prince's corps, who had commenced their retreat, were enabled to reach it.

On their arrival at the gates, they found them in the poſſeſſion of the enemy, and no other retreat left but that which was to be obtained by forcing their way through a town, of which the ſtreets were already occupied. In effecting it they ſuſtained a conſiderable loſs; but the gallantry which was diſplayed by all the corps, and particularly by the grenadiers of Bourbon, in the execution of this deſperate meaſure, was, as I am informed, beyond the reach of praiſe.

The loſs of Conſtance was accompanied by the loſs of the bridge at that place, and this latter circumſtance endangered conſiderably the left of the Ruſſian poſition. General Korſakof, on receiving the intelligence, thought it adviſable to concentrate his force and retire his men from the Tete de Pont during the night, a meaſure which has now become a matter of regret, the bridge of Conſtance having been retaken on the 10th.

I am ſorry to inform your Lordſhip that our loſs in theſe different attacks amounts to nearly 1500 men, killed, wounded, and miſſing: The loſs of the enemy muſt have been very conſiderable; but I have not had an opportunity of aſcertaining it. A conſiderable number of priſoners fell into our hands at the attack of Bueſingen, but, with the exception of about fifty, they contrived to make their eſcape during the retreat. Four pieces of cannon fell into our hands, three of which, already mentioned, at the attack of Dieſſenhofen, the fourth in the neighbourhood of Schlatten. I have the honour to be, &c.

JOHN RAMSAY.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

SWITZERLAND.

The Ruſſian army, after its retreat from Zurich took up a poſition near Cop-

Conſtance. On the morning of the 9th of October, General Korſakoff reſolved to paſs the Rhine for the purpoſe of driving the enemy from their poſition. The army advanced for about a league, without diſcovering the enemy; but, at length, they found him near the village of Schlatten, when the Ruſſians began the attack with great intrepidity, and obliged the French to retreat into the woods. They were upon the point of ſurrendering, when General Maſſena, in perſon, came with reinforcements, and obliged the Ruſſians to retreat with great loſs, by the ſame way in which they had advanced. See Gazette Intelligence.

On the 5th of October, the allied army marched by the Valley of Semſt and Elm; the French followed the rear guard, and gained ſome advantages during the firſt 3 or 4 miles of the march; upon a well-timed attack, however, of the Ruſſians, they deſiſted, from any farther attempt. On the 6th, the allied army paſſed the Danis Mountain, which the ſnow, that had fallen during the preceding week, had rendered dangerous; and ſome baggage and horſes were loſt on the march. This army ſoon after aſſembled at Coire, and after two days' repoſe, it was the intention of the Marſhal to retreat out of the Griſons, and form a junction with the army of General Korſakoff. See Gazette Intelligence.

ITALY.

Several conſiderable advantages have been gained by the Auſtrians over the French, the particulars of which are delayed for want of room.

FRANCE.

On the 10th of October, the meſſage of the Directory, announcing the different victories obtained by the armies being read, Gaudin extolled the valour of the republican troops; and expreſſed his ardent wiſhes that their triumphs would be crowned with *ſpeedy peace*.

Echaſſerieux, the elder, joined in the celebration of the gallant exploits of the armies, and coincided in the pacific ſentiments expreſſed by the preceding ſpeakers. "Let us, (he exclaimed) be juſt and magnanimous to all; mark out the end of our war and our victories, and ſtop there; leaving to the force of opinion to roll round the earth the revolutionary car. Found a durable peace upon alliances which are eternally faithful;—thoſe of mutual intereſts and truth. We ſhall then conſole the world; and the coalition will leave nothing behind it but the moſt painful reflections."

The Executive Directory ſent a meſſage to the Council of Five Hundred, on the 13th of October, on the finances, which ſtated the amount of the receipts of the 7th year of the Republic, at 476,000,000 livers. The expences of the year had been taken at 726,000,000; and the Directory were of opinion, that they would not fall ſhort of the eſtimate. The deficit however, they ſtated to be 240 inſtead of 250,000,000, and deducting from thence 110,000,000, as the arrears of receipts, the actual deficit was 130,000,000 (about 5,400,000l. Sterling.) The Directory moſt earneſtly prayed the Councils to take meaſures for filling up this void without delay, as they would wiſh to prevent the annihilation of public credit. This meſſage was referred to a commiſſion of ſeven members, with inſtructions to make a ſpeedy report.

The Executive Directory, in the month of October, iſſued an arrete, in conſequence of the government of Hamburgh having, contrary to the laws of nations, delivered up Napper Tandy and his unfortunate aſſociates to the Engliſh. Therefore the Directory, among other articles, ordered that the conſular and diplomatic agents who reſided at the government of Hamburgh, ſhould forthwith leave that city and territory.—That a general embargo ſhould be laid upon all ſhips and veſſels carrying Hamburgh colours, and that were then in the ports of the republic.

Revolution.

We now proceed to give an outline of a change, which took place on the 9th of November, which day will form another intereſting epoch in the annals of the republic.

The Director Sieyes and General Buonaparte have been the oſtenſible movers on this occaſion.

A ſelect number of the Council of Ancients, on the 9th of October, paſſed ſeveral decrees to the following effect:

ject: "That the *legiſlative body* ſhould be transferred to the commune of St Cloud, about four miles from Paris, on the following day, where the two Councils ſhould hold their ſitting.—That General Buonaparte ſhould be charged with the execution of this decree, and ſhould take every meaſure neceſſary for the ſafety of the national repreſentation.—That the guard of the legiſlative body, the ſtationary national guards, the troops of the line, who may be without the commune of Paris, and the whole extent of the ſtation of the 17th diviſion, ſhould be put directly under his orders, and commanded to acknowledge him in that capacity. All the citizens ſhall aſſiſt him with their ability, when called upon to do ſo.—That he ſhall conſult with the *committee* of *inſpection* of the two Councils.—That the preſent decree ſhould be communicated by meſſage to the Council of Five Hundred, and to the Executive Directory, and tranſmitted to all the communes of the republic by extraordinary couriers.

After theſe decrees had been paſſed, the Council of Ancients proceeded to publiſh an addreſs to the French nation, juſtificatory of their own conduct, and aſſerting, "That the common ſafety and the common proſperity were the objects of this conſtitutional meaſure; the inhabitants of Paris were deſired to remain tranquil; that the preſence of the legiſlative body would ſoon be reſtored to them; that the reſults of the day would ſoon ſhew whether the legiſlative body was worthy and capable of preparing the means of their happineſs."

General Buonaparte appeared at the bar, accompanied by ſeveral generals of his ſtaff, and addreſſed the Council in a ſhort ſpeech, in which he repreſented, that the republic was periſhing, and they knew it; but that the decree they had juſt paſſed had ſaved it.—That, aided by his companions in arms, he would arreſt thoſe who had diſturbed it. "We will," ſays he, "have a republic founded on true liberty and national repreſentation; I ſwear it in my name, and that of my companions in arms." Moſt of the members preſent received theſe exclamations with applauſes. The aſſembly then broke up, amidſt cries of *Vive la republique!*

Agreeably to the above decree the Council of Five Hundred met on the 10th at St Cloud. The minutes of the preceding ſitting being read, Gaudin moved, 1. That a committee of ſeven members be appointed to make a report on the ſituation of the Republic, and the meaſures of public ſafety which it would be proper to adopt. 2. That the committee make its report in one ſitting. 3. That all propoſitions be referred to it. 4. That every determination and deliberation be ſuſpended until the report of the committee be made. A ſtormy debate enſued, in which ſeveral members called out, "*No Dictator!—No Dictatorſhip!*

Delbrel then aſcended the Tribune, and ſaid—"Firſt of all let us take an oath of fidelity to the conſtitution." Yes! Yes! exclaimed all the members at once; and the cry of *Vive la Conſtitution!* reſounded from every part of the hall.

Grandmaiſon then ſpoke, and contended, that the Council, before they appointed a committee to conſider what *they were to do*, ought to appoint a committee to inquire what *had been done*.—He propoſed, therefore, to demand of the Council of Elders to be informed of the motives which dictated their removal to St Cloud. This motion was ſeconded by the exclamation of a great number. The ſenſe of the aſſembly being taken, a conſiderable number of members ſtood up in ſupport of this motion. Many voices called for the oath. The Preſident ſtated, that a propoſal had been made to inform the Council of Elders that the Council of Five Hundred was conſtituted.

Several members propoſed likewiſe to inform the Directory. One of the members obſerved upon this occaſion, "Before we ſend the meſſage, we muſt firſt know where the Directory are;" which excited a loud laugh. At length the following declaration was adopted—"The Council of Five Hundred declare to the Republic, that they are conſtituted to the number of a majority at St Cloud, and that they are ſitting in that Committee."

Bertrand (of Calvados) moved, that the declaration ſhould ſtate the firm reſolution of the Council to die rather than permit the conſtituion to be violated.

lated. This propoſition was dropped.

In this ſtage of the proceedings the Secretary read a letter from Barras, ſtating, that the glory which accompanied the return of the illuſtrious warrior to whom he had had the happineſs to open the career of renown, the diſtinguiſhed mark of confidence given to him by the legiſlative body, and the decree of the national repreſentation, had convinced him that the perils of liberty were then ſurmounted, and the intereſt of the armies ſecured—and that he returned with joy to the rank of a ſimple citizen, happy to transfer, complete and more reſpective than ever, the deſtinies of the Republic, of which he had been one of the depoſitaries.

While ſome of the members were urging the propriety of chuſing another Director in the room of Barras, General Buonaparte entered the hall, and walked up towards the Preſident.

A violent agitation immediately aroſe among part of the members, ſome of whom darted precipitately from their ſeats towards Buonaparte, ſurrounded him, and ſeized him by the collar. The cry of *Outlaw him!* was diſtinctly heard. A member attempted to ſtab him, but the blow was warded off by a grenadier. The tumult increaſed to a moſt violent degree. All the members quitted their ſeats, and walked through the hall in diſorder, converſing as they moved. Grandmaiſon moved, that "the appointment of Buonaparte ſhould be declared unconſtitutional." "Yes! yes!" reſounded from ſeveral parts of the hall.

The Preſident, Lucien Buonaparte, ſpoke to the ill treatment that the General had juſt received; and then laid down his badge of office on the table, and retired: upon this the doors of the hall were opened, and twenty grenadiers entered and conducted Lucien Buonaparte out of the hall. An officer then came forward, followed by a numerous guard, exclaiming, "*General Buonaparte orders the hall to be cleared!*" Upon which the troops advanced into the hall, which was cleared in a few minutes.

The ſittings were reſumed in the evening, and Lucien Buonaparte took the Preſident's chair. A decree was paſſed aboliſhing the Directory, appointing a Conſular Government of three, namely, Sieyes, Buonaparte, and Roger Ducos, who all appeared, and took the oath to be faithful to the Republic; after which the Council adjourned its ſittings till the 20th of February.

On the ſame day the Council of Elders met alſo at St Cloud: the proceedings on this occaſion were almoſt a copy of thoſe of the Council of Five Hundred. After much tumult, and ſitting a long time in a ſecret committee, they paſſed a decree of urgence of ſixteen articles, aboliſhing the Directoral authority; appointing a Conſular Executive of three perſons; expelling ſixty-one members of the legiſlative body; appointing from each Council a legiſlative committee of ſuperintendance, conſiſting of twenty-one members each; and giving a power to the Conſular Executive to order an extraordinary convocation of the Councils for the ratification of peace, or in caſe of public danger. This extraordinary aſſembly then adjourned till the 20th of February.

In the decree of urgence, which conſiſts of ſixteen articles, the following is the firſt:

"There is no longer an Executive Directory, and the following perſons are no longer members of the National Repreſentation, on account of the exceſſes and the violent attempts which they have uniformly made, and particularly the greater part of them in the ſitting of this morning;" in all ſixty-one members.

Eighteen members of the Council of Five Hundred, amongſt whom are Jourdan, Briot, &c. have been arreſted as the enemies of Buonaparte! Barras and Moulins have likewiſe been arreſted, charged with having attempted to uſurp the ſovereign authority, and to divide the Republic.

A general change has taken place in the ſeveral Departments of the State: Berthier is appointed Miniſter of War, Gentilheux Miniſter of Juſtice, and Reinhard Miniſter for Foreign Affairs.

HOLLAND.

The capitulation by which the Engliſh and Ruſſian armies agreed to quit the Batavian Republic appears to have

al;

already produced ſome effects; the Dutch funds have riſen, and the price of proviſions have fallen.

DENMARK.

It appears, that on the 27th of September the long expected order for reſtraining the Liberty of the Preſs was ſigned by the King, and publiſhed. All anonymous writings were ſtrictly forbidden. All incitements to inſurrections were to be puniſhed with death. Any perſon who ſhould abuſe the conſtitution or monarchical form of government, or ſhould propagate ſcandalous reports concerning the King or his family, was to be baniſhed the country.

IRELAND.

It appears, that, beſides ſome ſymptoms of inſurrection in the northern parts of the ſiſter kingdom, ſeveral depredations have lately been committed in the vicinage of the metropolis, accompanied with horrid cruelty: the Lord Lieutenant held a council on the 24th of October, when a proclamation was ordered to be iſſued, offering 200l. for each of the barbarians who had murdered Mr Allen, the ſteward of the Lord Chancellor, in his bed at his Lordſhip's houſe, at Mount Shannon, near Limerick. A proclamation was alſo ordered at the ſame time, directing veſſels from Philadelphia and New York, or any part of the ſtate Penſylvania, to perform quarantine, on account of the epidemic fever prevailing there.

A proclamation has been iſſued by the Lord Lieutenant, prohibiting the exportation of grain, and offering a bounty of 10s. per barrel, on the firſt 20,000 barrels imported from foreign countries. Another proclamation prohibits the baking of any kind of bread but houſehold or brown bread.

LONDON.

Captain Young, of his Majeſty's ſhip Ethalion, ſtates, in a letter to the Admiralty, that on the 15th of October, in latitude 44 deg. 53 min. longitude 7 deg. 53 min. he diſcovered three ſail, evidently men of war, ſteering S. E. the ſternmoſt of which proved to be his Majeſty's ſhip Naiad, with two frigates of the enemy ahead, after which he made all poſſible ſail in chace; the next morning he came up with the headmoſt, and, after firing two broadſides, and a running fight of an hour, ſhe ſtruck to the Ethalion; and proved to be the Thetis Spaniſh frigate, of 36 guns, and 250 men, from Vera Cruz, bound to Spain, with 1,411,526 dollars, and a quantity of cocoa on board. The Ethalion in this action had none killed nor wounded; the Thetis had one man killed and nine wounded.

Captain Pierrepont, of the Naiad, chaced and took the other frigate on the 18th, after ſhe had rounded Cape Finiſterre, and ſhoved very cloſe to the rocks of Monte Lora. The Britiſh frigates, the Triton and Alcmene, were in company with the Naiad, and all three cloſed with the enemy amidſt the rocks of Commanurto, at the entrance of Maros, when the Spaniſh colours were hauled down. She proved to be the Santa Brigada, and had on board 1,400,000 dollars, independent of a cargo of equal eſtimation. In this fortunate action the Engliſh had one man killed, and ten wounded.

Nov. 2. Between one and two o'clock yeſterday morning, Napper Tandy with his fellow-priſoners Blackwell, Capt Montmonea *alias* Morris, and George Perers, arrived at Newgate. Blackwell bore a commiſſion in the French army as a lieutenant-colonel, and had the command of the expedition that landed in the north of Ireland, and of which Napper Tandy was a party. Montmonea alſo bears a commiſſion in the French army.

The Naſſau of 64 guns, ran on ſhore on the 15th on the ſands north ſide of the Texel and was loſt; about 100 perſons are ſuppoſed to have loſt their lives.

At the uſual entertainment given by the Lord Mayor, on the 9th of November, the principal gentlemen of oppoſition attended Mr Combe in his new capacity.

On the 12th November, ſeveral meteors or fire balls were ſeen at Greatham, near Hartlepool, and other parts of that neighbourhood. They were firſt obſerved between five and ſix o'clock in an eaſtern direction, and con-

continued till day-break, when they were fucceeded by ſlight flaſhes of lightning. The general appearance was ſublimely awful. *Newcaſtle Chronicle.*

The Turkey company have directed two elegant ſwords to be made and preſented to Sir Sydney Smith, and the gallant Colonel Douglas, who ſo bravely ſeconded Sir Sydney at Acre. The ſwords coſt 300 guineas each.

EDINBURGH.

At the firſt meeting of the Court of Seſſion on the 11th, the whole fifteen Judges were preſent, and *on the Bench*; a circumſtance which has not occurred for many years paſt, as the late Lord Monboddo always choſe to ſit below the Bench, at the ſide of the Lord Advocate's chair.

We are happy to obſerve, that the Plan for a Public Kitchen is now completely arranged.

On Monday the 11th the herring fiſhery commenced in the Frith of Forth, and promiſes to turn out very abundant.

The United Incorporation of Mary's Chapel have reſolved, that from and after Candlemas next, the admiſſion money ſhall be raiſed to L. 70 Sterling.

The diſtilleries in Scotland have all been ſtopped for ſome days paſt, in conſequence of the late act of Parliament, which, it is believed, was founded upon the high price of grain. It is, however, not a little ſingular, that the diſtilleries in England were not included in that act.

The Deptford Fender has landed at Dundee the head of Admiral De Winter's flag ſhip. The figure is a lion, as large as life, having between the paws an eſcutcheon, on one ſide of which are cut two ſhips anchors acroſs; and on the oppoſite ſide the letters A. A.

The Magiſtrates and Town Council of Glaſgow have ſet on foot a ſubſcription for raiſing a large ſum of money by contribution from the funds of that city, and of the other Communities and Incorporations, and from individual inhabitants, for the purpoſe of procuring ſuch ſupplies of meal and corn as may be neceſſary for providing againſt the riſk of ſcarcity in the city and immediate vicinity thereof. The meal and corn is to be imported from foreign countries.

On Monday the 18th, the Truſtees of Anderſon's Inſtitution made choice of Dr Birbeck to be Profeſſor of Natural Philoſophy and Chemiſtry in that ſeminary.

Several perſons accuſed of iſſuing forged bank-notes, are apprehended at Leſſudden in Roxburghſhire, and committed to Jedburgh jail. Sundry perſons ſuſpected of forgery were alſo apprehended in the neighbourhood of Berwick.

Lord Dundas, Colonel of the North York militia, has benevolently offered the ſervices of the Regimental Band of Muſic, to play for the benefit of the *Public Kitchen for the Poor*; and the Directors of the George Street Aſſembly Rooms have agreed to appropriate (free of expence) the great room, two days a-week, for the purpoſe.

A number of ſick Ruſſian ſoldiers have been landed from the ſhips now lying in Leith roads, which came from Holland; three or four have died.

The Juſtices of Peace have, in conſequence of ſundry applications from the journeymen of different handycrafts, allowed them to raiſe their wages a trifle, (generally 1½d. on the ſhilling) in conſequence of the high price of proviſions.

27. Yeſterday the Magiſtrates and Town Council of this city, unanimouſly reſolved to preſent to his Excellency Sir Ralph Abercromby an addreſs of congratulation on his return to his native land; and alſo of thanks for the many eminent ſervices rendered to his King and country ſince the commencement of the preſent war; and that the ſame be tranſmitted in a handſome gold box.

The Directors of the Bank of Scotland have reſolved to advance 10,000l. as a loan towards the fund for improving Leith harbour.

The celebrated manuſcript of Virgil, which was preſerved in the library of St Iſoretto, at Florence, is ſaid to be among the laſt ſpoils of Italy which have been depoſited in Paris. A few of the Bucolics only are wanting in this ancient exemplar: It is placed in the national library, with the other copies of the ſame author brought from the Vatican.

There has been ſo little of any advantageous change in the ſtate of the ſeaſon ſince our laſt, that the neceſſary operations of the huſbandman muſt have remained in pretty much the ſame ſituation. We fear, indeed, that but a ſmall proportion of the uſual quantity of wheat has yet, even on the drier ſorts of ſoil, been put into the ground; and on ſuch as are of the more wet and tenacious kinds, it cannot probably be ſown until the ſpring. The ſame cauſe that has prevented the wheat crop from being committed to the earth, has alſo generally retarded, and, in many inſtances, totally prevented the farmers from getting their manures upon the lands. There has been little froſt, the weather continuing for the moſt part hazy or rainy. The butcher market continues almoſt the ſame as was ſtated laſt month, but fiſh are more plenty and pretty reaſonable. The herring fiſhing began about the 11th, and continues ſucceſsful. They are ſelling in the Edinburgh market, 10 for a penny.

By the Engliſh report we learn, that a ſimilar tract of wet weather has been prevalent there during this month, which has retarded the wheat ſowing, and other operations of agriculture. It ſtates that both oats and barley are better than there was reaſon to apprehend. Peas have in common been too luxuriant in their growth to be productive under the flail. Potatoes, on being taken up, prove rather a better crop than was expected on the drier ſorts of ſoil; but on the wet ones they are in many caſes rotten. Turnips, from their not having been kept in a ſufficiently clean ſtate of cultivation, and from the coldneſs of the ſeaſon, are ſmall in the bulb; which, added to their great failure in many caſes, renders them extremely ſcarce for the purpoſes of feeding. We are fearful that ſuch as is proper for the uſes of the baker, tho' uncommonly high in price at preſent, is ſtill looking upwards. The great number of half-fed cattle that have lately been hurried into the markets, have had the effect of giving a temporary cheapneſs to the article of butcher's meat; but from the ſtate of the ſales in the laſt week, it would ſeem to be on the riſe. Beef ſells in Smithfield market from 3s. 4d. to 4s. 6d. per ſtone of 8lb. ſinking the offal. In the price of mutton there has alſo been an advance within theſe few days. Hogs, notwithſtanding the high price of their food, keep up. Pork is from 3s. 8d. to 4s. 8d. per ſtone.

It may be proper to notice, that whatever may *now* be the *deficiency* in the corn produce of this kingdom, it has proceeded from cauſes which no human wiſdom could alter or controul; on which account we ought to be not only more contented and patient under the preſſure of thoſe inconveniences which it muſt produce, but more eagerly diſpoſed to a proper *economy* and *retrenchment* in the ſupplies, as well as cookery of our families, in order to have the ſolid and pleaſing ſatisfaction of contributing to relieve the ſufferings and diſtreſs of the poor, which, under the preſent circumſtances, is unqueſtionably great.—See ſome ſenſible obſervations on this ſubject, page 758.

LISTS.

MARRIAGES.

At London, Major John Macdonald, of the regiment of the Iſles, to Miſs Chambers, daughter of the late Sir Robert Chambers, late Chief Juſtice of the Supreme Court of Judicature in Bengal.

At Kelſo, Robert Stuart of Stonefield, Eſq; to Miſs Robertſon, daughter of the late Mr Peter Robertſon, merchant in Kelſo.

Oct. 25. At Leith, Mr David Wemyſs, W. S. to Miſs Agnes Lindeſay, daughter of Mr James Lindeſay, merchant in Leith.

28. At Montroſe, Mr David Walker, merchant in Glaſgow, to Miſs Margaret Lyall, daughter of James Lyall, Eſq; Montroſe.

— At Falkirk, Lieutenant Archibald Colquhoun, Perthſhire light dragoons, to Miſs Janet Barbgate, of that place.

29. At Edinburgh, Paul Stevens Samuels, M. D. to Miſs Iſabella Walker, daughter of the late Rev. Mr W. Walker, miniſter at Colleſſie.

SEQUESTRATIONS.

Oct. 30. Alexander Scott manufacturer in Glaſgow.

Nov. 13. Archibald and James Robertſon and Co. merchants in Greenock.

16. James Bulloch grazier at Newlands.

Haddington, Nov. 29.

Wheat, 60s. Barley 35s. Oats, 30s. Peaſe, 33s. Beans, 33s. 6d.

Edinburgh, Nov. 30. Oat-meal, 2s. 1½d. Bear-meal, 1s. 5d. Peaſe-meal, 1s. 6d.

PRICES OF STOCKS.

Nov. 8.	Nov. 26.
Bank Stock 152	157
3 per cent. red. 59¼	61½
3 per cent. conſ. 60⅞	61⅛
4 per cent. anns. 74⅞	76⅜
India Stock 192	197
Eng. Lot. Tic. 15l. 12s.	15l. 13s.
Iriſh Lot. Tic 7l. 16s.	7l. 16s.

THE SCOTS MAGAZINE,

For DECEMBER 1799.

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EDINBURGH:

Sold by JAMES WATSON, No 40. South Bridge,
And by the Principal Bookſellers in Town and Country.
And by T. KAY, Strand, London.

Property of Oil to deſtroy Bugs.

SIR,

THE virtue and uſes of oil have been copiouſly ſtated and treated: and its efficacy, as well as its power of calming a ſtorm at ſea, as alſo its being an antidote againſt certain poiſons, when properly adminiſtered, have long been underſtood.

But I find oil poſſeſſes other powers, which I do not recollect having any where read of, viz, a drop of oil, from the end of a feather laid on a bug when running in its fulleſt ſpeed, will ſtop it inſtantly with death! This is alſo the caſe with a fly, a waſp, an earwig, &c. it will alſo have the ſame effect on that harmleſs inſect a ſpider, but not ſo inſtantaneouſly, nor will it yield till the oil pervades and ſtops every pore, through which it is ſaid inſects breathe, when it will be obſerved to be diſtorted, and agonized in the moſt convulſive manner.

Some of your ingenious correſpondents will, perhaps, from this hint, be led to enlarge further on this ſubject. N.

Yeaſt a Cure for the putrid fever.

YEAST has been known to cure putrid fevers in the worſt caſes. Mr Willard, a medical gentleman, at Albany, in the State of New York, was called to attend a ſtrong Dutch girl, who laboured under it to ſuch a degree that he could ſcarce bear her breath; he gave her plenty of yeaſt and cured her immediately. It is thought by ſome, that yeaſt, taken plentifully, and at the ſame time applied externally, will ſtop the progreſs of a mortification, and correct the putrid quality of the blood. The trial is certainly deſirable, and the expence trifling.

St Neot's,
Nov. 7, 1799.

Your's
WM. GORDON.

New method of Tanning.

Mr Knowles, who has got a patent, deſcribes this invention in the following Terms. *Firſt*, as ſoon as the wool or hair is pulled or taken off the ſkin, the ſkin or pelt, (a name uſually given to the ſkin in that ſtate) is ſimply dipped into water, and undergoes the operation of fleſhing. *Secondly*, The ſkin or pelt is then dipped again into water, and it undergoes another operation, called ſkudding; after which it is in a ſtate fit to be tanned, tawed, or dreſſed.

This proceſs occupies much leſs time, and occaſions leſs labour and expence than that hitherto practiſed, which conſiſted, firſt of imerging the ſkins in lime-pits, where they were depoſited for ſeveral weeks, and were afterwards neceſſarily obliged to be drenched or purified.

THE

SCOTS MAGAZINE,

For DECEMBER 1799.

ACCOUNT OF MRS ANNA WILLIAMS,

DR JOHNSON'S COMPANION.

MRS WILLIAMS was a perſon extremely intereſting; ſhe had an uncommon firmneſs of mind, boundleſs curioſity, retentive memory, and ſtrong judgment; ſhe had various powers of pleaſing; her perſonal afflictions and ſlender fortune ſhe ſeemed to forget when ſhe had the power of doing an act of kindneſs: ſhe was ſocial, chearful, and active, in a ſtate of body that was truly deplorable. Her regard to Dr Johnſon was formed with ſuch ſtrength of judgment and firm eſteem, that her voice never heſitated when ſhe repeated his maxims or recited his good deeds, though upon many other occaſions her want of ſight had led her to making ſo much uſe of her ear as to affect her ſpeech.

Mrs Williams was blind before ſhe was acquainted with Dr Johnſon; her account of Mrs Johnſon was, that ſhe had a good underſtanding and great ſenſibility, but inclined to be ſatirical. Her firſt huſband died inſolvent: her ſons were much diſguſted with her for her ſecond marriage; perhaps becauſe they, ſtruggling to get advanced in life, were mortified to think ſhe had allied herſelf to a man who had not any viſible means of being uſeful to them. However ſhe always retained her affection for them. While they reſided in Gough-court, her ſon the officer knocked at the door, and aſked the maid if her miſtreſs was at home? She anſwered, "Yes, Sir; but ſhe is ſick in bed."—'O!' ſays he; 'if it is ſo, tell her that her ſon Jervas called to know how ſhe did;' and was going away. The maid begged ſhe might run up to tell her miſtreſs, and, without waiting his anſwer, left him. Mrs Johnſon, enraptured to hear her ſon was below, deſired the maid would tell him ſhe longed to embrace him. When the maid returned, the Gentleman was gone, and poor Mrs Johnſon was much agitated by the adventure: it was the only time he ever made an effort to ſee her. Dr Johnſon did all he could to conſole his wife; but told Mrs Williams, "Her ſon is uniformly undutiful; ſo I conclude, like many other ſober men, he might once in his life be drunk, and in that fit nature got the better of his pride."

Mrs Williams was never otherwiſe dependant on Dr Johnſon than in that ſort of aſſociation which is little known in the great world. They both had much to ſtruggle through, and I verily believe that whichever held the purſe, the other partook when want required.

She had many reſources, though none very great: with the Miſs Wilkinſons ſhe generally paſſed a part of the year, and received from them preſents, and from the firſt who died got a legacy of cloaths and linen. The laſt of them, Mrs Jane, left her an annual rent; but from the blundering manner of the will, I fear ſhe never reaped the benefit of it. That lady left money to erect an hoſpital for ancient maids; but the number ſhe had allotted being too great for the donation, the Doctor ſaid it would be better to ex-

punge the word *maintain*, and put in, to ſtarve ſuch a number of old maids. They aſked him, what name ſhould be given it? he replied, "Let it be called Jenny's whim."

Lady Phillips made her a ſmall annual allowance, and ſome other Welſh ladies, to all of whom ſhe was related. Mrs Montagu, on the death of Mr Montagu, ſettled on her ten pounds per annum. When the firſt ten were ſent her, they were accompanied with a letter, telling her that before ſhe ſent her that ſum, ſhe had taken care that the future payments ſhould not depend upon her own precarious life; for that it was fixed to her by deed. Mrs Williams's gratitude was great and ſincere; and, on ſhewing the letter, before the Doctor, to the preſent writer, and my teſtifying my joy at it, "Ah!" ſaid he, "the good lady has given Willy a treaſure here, and is laying up one for herſelf."

As to her poems, ſhe many times attempted to publiſh them: the half-crowns ſhe had got towards the publication, ſhe confeſſed to me, went for neceſſaries, and that the greateſt pain ſhe ever felt was from the appearance of defrauding her ſubſcribers; "but what can I do? the Doctor always puts me off with, Well, we'll think about it; and Goldſmith ſays, Leave it to me." However, two of her friends, under her directions, made a new ſubſcription at a crown, the whole price of the work, and in a very little time raiſed ſix pounds. Mrs Carter was applied to by Mrs Williams's deſire, and ſhe with the utmoſt activity and kindneſs procured a liſt of names. At length the work was publiſhed, in which is inſerted a fine-written but gloomy tale of Dr Johnſon. The money Mrs Williams had various uſes for, and a part of it was ſunded. As near as I can calculate, Mrs Williams had about 35 or 40 pounds a year. The furniture ſhe uſed was her own: her expences were ſmall; tea and bread and butter being at leaſt half of her nouriſhment. Sometimes ſhe had a ſervant or chairwoman to do the ruder offices of the houſe; but ſhe was herſelf active and induſtrious. I have frequently ſeen her at work. Upon remarking one day her facility in moving about the houſe, ſearching into drawers, and finding books without the help of ſight, "Believe me," ſaid ſhe, "perſons who cannot do their common offices without ſight, did but little while they enjoyed that bleſſing." Scanty circumſtances, bad health, and blindneſs are ſurely a ſufficient apology for her being ſometimes impatient: her natural diſpoſition was good, friendly and humane. She was, in reſpect to morals, more rigid than modern politeneſs admits; for ſhe abhorred vice, and was not ſparing of anger againſt thoſe who threw young folks into temptation: her ideas were very juſt in reſpect to the improvement of the mind, and her own was well ſtored. I have ſeveral of her letters; they are all written with great good ſenſe and ſimplicity, and with a tenderneſs and affection that far excel all that is called politeneſs and elegance. I have been favoured with her company ſome weeks at different times, and always found her temper equal, and her converſation lively. I never paſſed hours with more pleaſure than when ſhe and Dr Johnſon talked of the perſons they valued, or on ſubjects in which they were much intereſted. One night I remember Mrs Williams was giving an account of the Wilkinſons being at Paris, and having had conſigned to their care the letters of Lady W. M, on which they had beſtowed great praiſe. The Doctor ſaid, "Why, Madam, there might be great charms to them in being intruſted with honourable letters; but thoſe who know better the world would have rather poſſeſſed two pages of true hiſtory."

One day that he came to my houſe to meet many others, we told him

that we had arranged our party to go to Weſtminſter Abbey, would not he go with us? "No, he replied; nor while I can keep out." Upon our ſaying that the friends of a lady had been in great fear leaſt ſhe ſhould make a certain match for herſelf, he ſaid, "We that are *his* friends have had great fears for him."

He gave an account of a lady then lately dead, who had made a ſeparate purſe from her huſband, and confeſſed to the ſum in her laſt moments; but before ſhe could tell where it was placed, a convulſion finiſhed her. The poor man ſaid, he was more hurt by her want of confidence in him, than the loſs of his money. "I told him," ſaid he, "that he muſt conſole himſelf; for perhaps the money might be found, and he was ſure his wife was gone."

I talked to her (Mrs Thrale) much of dear Mrs Williams; ſhe ſaid ſhe was highly born; that ſhe was very nearly related to a Welſh Peer; but that though Dr Johnſon had always preſſed her to be acquainted with her, yet ſhe ſaid ſhe could not; ſhe was afraid of her. I named her virtues; ſhe ſeemed to hear me as if I had ſpoke of a new diſcovered country.—I think the character of Dr Johnſon can never be better ſummed up than in his own words in Raſſellas, page 246, 247: He was maſter of an infinite deal of wit, which proceeded from depth of thought, and of a humour which he uſed ſometimes to take off from the aſperity of reproof. Though he did ſometimes ſay very ſportive things, which might be ſaid to be playing upon the folly of ſome of his companions, and though he never ſaid one that could diſgrace him, yet I think, when the man is no more, the care ſhould be to prove his ſteadfaſt uniformity in wiſdom, virtue, and religion, and not to add thoſe matters which could be of no force but as the occaſion called them forth. His political principles ran high, both in Church and State: he wiſhed power to the King and to the Heads of the Church, as the laws of England have eſtabliſhed, but I know he diſliked abſolute power; and I am very ſure of his diſapprobation of the doctrines of the Church of Rome; becauſe, about three weeks before we came abroad, he ſaid to my Cornelia, "You are going where the oſtentatious pomp of Church ceremonies attracts the imagination; but if they want to perſuade you to change, you muſt remember that by increaſing your faith, you may be perſuaded to become Turk." If theſe were not the words, I have kept up to the expreſs meaning.

I have no patience of the manner in which Mrs Williams is mentioned, with inſinuations of the great weight ſhe was on Dr Johnſon. She was of a very good family: her Welſh friends made her a conſtant allowance, and the Miſs Wilkinſons were liberal to her. She got a hundred and fifty pounds by her poems. I well remember her ſaying one day, that ſhe would have bought ſome tea, but wanted the money. The Doctor replied, "Why did you not aſk me?" She replied, 'I knew you had none.' He anſwered, "but I could have borrowed it." She who knew him better than any perſon living, once ſaid that "he never denied his advice or his purſe to any one that aſked." She had ſtrong ſenſe, excellent principles, and a chearful mind; but oppreſſed with blindneſs, pain, and poverty, her temper might be ſoured: but who would have born ſuch heavy afflictions ſo well as ſhe did, or have been ſo uſeful as ſhe really was!—But pleaſe to conſider when you come to narrate particulars how, without intention, you leſſen fame; you will find in ſome lines I have writ, that I expoſe the poverty of my friend, and the weakneſſes that only form a ſtate of mortality.

ACCOUNT OF MARSHAL SUWOROW.

Concluded from page 660.

MARSHAL SUWOROW is maſter of the principal part of the European languages. He ſpeaks and writes both German and French as if they were his native tongue. He is alſo well acquainted with thoſe of Italy and Moldavia, of Poland and Turkey; and he can converſe in all the various dialects of the people whom he has ſubdued.

In 1774 he married Barba Nanowna Princeſs Proſorowſki, daughter of the General Prince Iwan Proſorowſki; by whom he has two children now living: Natalia Counteſs Suworrow, who married General Count Nicolai Zoubow; and Arcadius, who is about fourteen years of age, a youth of great promiſe, and a Lieutenant in one of the regiments of guards.

Notwithſtanding his age, his long and laborious marches, which form an enormous aggregate of ſix thouſand German miles (equal to twenty thouſand Engliſh meaſure); notwithſtanding his wounds and military toils; Suworow ſtill preſerves the gaiety of youth. He is free from all corporeal weakneſs and infirmity; a circumſtance which muſt be attributed to the hardy habits of his life, his robuſt conſtitution, and rigid temperance. Diſtinct as he is, in the more ſtriking features of his character, from the common race of men, that difference is ſeen to prevail even in his ordinary tranſactions, in his mode of living, and the diſtribution of his time.

He riſes about four in the morning, both in winter and ſummer, in town and in the country. His bed is not contrived by art to indulge the effeminate voluptuary; it is not made of down, or ſurrounded with ſilken curtains; but is formed of the ſimple materials of nature which afford to the peaſant fatigued with labour the refreſhing ſweets of ſleep. A heap of freſh hay, ſufficiently elevated and ſcattered into conſiderable breadth, is his humble couch. A white ſheet is ſpread over it, with a cuſhion for his pillow, and his cloak for his coverlid. He generally ſleeps without body linnen, and in ſummer he paſſes his day and night in a tent in his garden.

It is not to be ſuppoſed that the toilet occupies any portion of his time; but when he is not on active ſervice, he is clean in his perſon, and frequently waſhes himſelf in the courſe of the day. He confines his dreſs to an uniform, and a kind of cloſe jacket, called a *gurtha*; but *robes de chambre* and riding coats are baniſhed from his wardrobe, and he never ſuffers the indulgence of gloves or a peliſſe, but when a winter's march compels him to uſe them.

After his breakfaſt, which conſiſts of tea, he walks for an hour by way of exerciſe, and then ſits ſeriouſly down to the official duties of the day. He reads letters and reports, diſtributes the neceſſary orders, and continues without relaxation his profeſſional occupations till noon, he dictates ſuch alterations as he thinks neceſſary to be made in the various diſpatches which are preſented to his inſpection; and he will ſometimes write them himſelf.

His ſtyle is manly and conciſe; and ſo correct is he in the choiſe of his expreſſions, that he is never known to efface them.

The hour of his dinner is irregular and varies from nine to twelve; and during his repaſt, he is frequently communicative, and full of vivacity: his table generally conſiſts of about twenty covers; but he is himſelf a rare example of temperance, and obſerves the faſts of the Greek Church with the moſt undeviating rigour. Immediately after his dinner he paſſes a few hours in ſleep, and ſupper is not a meal with him.

He knows little of the amuſements and paſtimes which luxury has invented, and laſſitude demands, to quick-

en the pace or relieve the burthen of time.

His principal occupation, and at the same time his favourite diversion, is war and its duties. However severe he may be with his soldiers, whether in their discipline and manœuvres, or the incredible marches (sometimes of ten German miles a day), by which he has given such eclat and effect to his campaigns, they all regard him with an affection which borders on idolatry; and under his command they are inspired with a courage that renders them invincible; but whether they are engaged in the hurry of a campaign, or enjoying the repose of winter quarters, their necessary wants and appropriate comforts are the constant objects of his protecting attention.

The small portion of leisure which he enjoys is devoted to reading. But as the military science has long been, and continues to be, the sole object of his regard, those authors of every nation who investigate, illustrate or improve it, engross his literary attentions. He does not, however neglect to get information of what is passing in the world, from the communications afforded by the journals and gazettes of foreign countries.

He dislikes all public of entertainments: though, when any particular circumstance leads him thither, he appears to partake, and endeavours to promote the general pleasure. He will sometimes even dance and play at cards, though very rarely indeed, and merely that he may not interrupt the etiquette of public manners.

His father bequeathed him a considerable property, which the grateful bounty of the Empress has considerably augmented; though he constantly refused all presents in money or land till the interest of his children could be benefited by such gratifications. He entrusts the administration of his private affairs to others; and possesses none of those baubles which the rich too generally regard as contributing to the enjoyment and pleasure of life. He has neither villa nor plate, nor equipage nor liveried servants, nor pictures, nor rare collections. As a warrior, he has no fixed habitation; he contents himself with whatever he finds, requires nothing but what absolute necessity demands, and which may be transported with ease from one place to another. It is also among the singular though unimportant circumstances of his life, that he has not made use of a looking glass for twenty years; or during that period, encumbered his person with either watch or money.

With respect to his character, he is a man of the most incorruptible probity, immoveable in his purposes, and inviolable in his promises. Nor do these sturdy virtues disqualify him from possessing the most engaging manners. He is continually striving to moderate a violence of temper, which he has not been able to extinguish. An effervescent spirit of impatience continues to predominate in his character, and it perhaps never happened, that the execution of any of his orders has been equal to the rapidity of his wishes.

He is sincerely religious, not from enthusiasm but from principle; and takes every opportunity of attending the offices of public devotion: nay, when circumstances afford him the opportunity, he will on Sundays and festivals, deliver lectures on subjects of piety to those whom duty calls to an attendance upon him.

The love of his country, and the ambition to contend in arms for its glory, are the powerful and predominant emotions of his indefatigable life; and to them, like the ancient Romans, he sacrifices every other sentiment, and consecrates without reserve all the faculties of his nature.

His military career has been one long uniform course of success and triumph, produced by his enterprising courage, and extraordinary presence of

mind; by his perſonal intrepidity, and promptitude of execution; by the rapid and unparalelled movements of his armies; and by their perfect aſſurance of victory in fighting under his banners*.

The following letter from General Suworow was written at the time he was conducting the two important ſieges of Mantua and Aleſſandria, to a Gentleman in Scotland, who had lived with him ſome time in Ruſſia:

"Theſe lines, Sir, are a ſufficient proof how ſenſible I have been of your kind recollection, and of the wiſhes which you form for my proſperity and for the ſucceſs of our arms.

"Although military operations occupy at this moment all my time, I am, however, unwilling to neglect my old acquaintances. Our affairs, thank Heaven, are going on in the beſt poſſible manner; and the happy way in which our firſt campaign has been opened, appears to be a good omen for the future. You will probably have already heard of the capture of the citadel of Turin, as well as of ſeveral other places which I have had the good fortune to take poſſeſſion of at the head of the Auſtro-Ruſſian army. There is hardly any thing left but to take Mantua and Aleſſandria, where I now am, and both of which places are beſieged, to make my ſatisfaction complete. The conqueſt of them will increaſe the name of my feſtival days.

"May your brave countrymen long flouriſh, who, by ſecuring in part the Mediteranean from all hoſtile attempts, furniſhed us with the means of acting here in Italy with more effect againſt the Revolutioniſts.

"May your prediction be accompliſhed! to become pacificator, after having ſubjugated an arrogant and preſumptuous enemy, is indeed the part which I am again ambitious of playing at the end of my career, as well as of the pleaſure of again ſeeing you, to repeat with my own mouth the ſentiments of eſteem and affection with which I am, Sir, your very humble and very obedient ſervant,

ALEX. SUWOROW RYMNIKSKI."

11th July 1799.

* The preceding Character is extracted from the Hiſtory of his Campaigns.

ANECDOTES AND GLEANINGS.

Buonaparte.

GREAT men almoſt always entertain a pre-ſentiment of their future elevation. Fifteen months before Buonaparte was appointed commander in chief of the army, which he unvariably led on to victory, he formed the plan of the conqueſt of Italy. Being at that time at Toulon, he took a pleaſure in communicating it to the ſecretary-general of one of the repreſentatives of the people, upon a miſſion in the ſouth. The ſecretary afterwards related this ſtriking fact to the author of this article.—"Buonaparte," ſaid he, "had conquered Italy before he attacked it."

Scarcely had Buonaparte begun to make trial of his plan, when a general conſternation was diffuſed through the Auſtrian army. Colli, one of the generals, could not repreſs his indignation. Retiring to an inn at Turin, he could not refrain from tears; and was repeatedly heard to ſtamp and exclaim, "If a man of twenty or thirty years' ſervice had been oppoſed to me, I ſhould not have cared. But a boy! a boy!"

It was above all to the ſevere diſcipline that Buonaparte eſtablihed in his army, that he was indebted for his prodigious ſucceſs. He was never afraid to ſpeak truth before the face of any man. One day, when his room was crowded with officers, he caſt a terrible look upon one of them: "I knew," ſaid he, "that you were a coward; but I did not know that you were a knave."

A